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SCHOOL EXCURSIONS AND VACATION  
SCHOOLS.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of His Majesty.



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VOLUME 21.

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PREFATORY NOTE TO VOLUME 21  
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Since the publication ten years ago, in the first volume of the Board's Special Reports, of Miss Dodd's paper on the School Journey in Germany, followed by the Special Reports five years later in Volume VIII by Messrs. Cowham, England, Wollman and Flamank, and Hyde, on School Journeys in this country, out-door education has developed not only on the line of the School Journey but on other lines also. These Reports indicated indeed that a need had been felt at home as well as abroad for supplementing indoor education by bringing school-life into relation with life outside the school, and that steps had already been taken to meet the need in this country along lines similar to those already taken in Germany.

But recently the idea has outgrown the particular form in which it manifested itself in the School Journey. It would seem that we can already recognise a general and widespread tendency to restore to school-children by varying methods and agencies those educative influences which town-life is apt to shut away from them. The vital principle that took shape in the Journey is now to be recognised in other educational activities. Efforts that at first might appear to be separate and sporadic, as did the School Journey ten years ago in England, may now fairly be considered as aspects of one general movement vitalized by one and the same idea.

It has therefore seemed convenient to treat in one Special Report, prepared by Mr. J. E. G. de Montmorency, a number of different aspects of out-door education. The various sections of which this volume is composed are linked together by the quality common to all the educational experiments described—that the school room in each case is wholly or partly the open-air. The volume presents some picture of that part of the educational field to-day which is covered by the open sky. Vacation Schools, Country Schools for backward children, School Journeys, may all be considered as varying aspects of a conscious reaction against the evils of a school-life lived within the limiting four walls of a school room unrelieved and uninspired by any intelligent contact with the healthy and stimulating realities of nature. The evils which are inevitably attached to town-life show themselves as inevitably in the physical and intellectual development of children, and are exaggerated as inevitably in the case of children whose home circumstances provide few or no

relieving conditions. To diminish and offset these evils, to promote a more natural balance among the physical and intellectual factors which make up bodily and mental health is the general aim of such educational efforts as are here considered.

In comparison with this general aim the differences between the various efforts need little comment other than the observations contained in the Report itself. The vacation school possesses a distinguishing feature in that it is in the first place a holiday "school," and only in the second place an "open-air" school. Its essential nature would not be altered theoretically if all its work were done indoors. Actually, however, a vacation school tends to be in many respects an outdoor-school, for its object would be endangered if not destroyed by confining its activities within four walls. The date of the long holidays makes also towards this end. The "open-air school" and "country school" proper are on the other hand the direct and essential outcome of the desire to counteract the effects which town life is apt to produce upon the child's growth, bodily, mental, and spiritual. The function of the open-air school is largely remedial and curative. Physically its aim is distinct and direct, mentally its aim is, if equally distinct, yet less direct. With the School Journey, the aim is more consciously a mental development than in the case of the other two forms of what may be called the "outdoor" theory. It is the product not only of this theory but even more of a theory purely educational.

*"Segnius irritant animos demissa per aurem,  
quam quae sunt oculis subjecta fidelibus et quae  
ipse sibi tradit spectator."*

What the work in the laboratory is to chemistry and physics, that in a large measure the sights and associations of a School Journey are to history, geography, and nature-study; and as nature-study has grown in estimation for young children at the expense of the laboratory so the open road has found its place in our education as something more than a way to and from the school-house.

It has only to be added that the Board accept no responsibility for the opinions expressed by the writer of this Report.

Office of Special Inquiries and Reports.  
December, 1907.

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# SCHOOL EXCURSIONS AND VACATION SCHOOLS.

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## SCHOOL EXCURSIONS AND VACATION SCHOOLS.

## I.—HISTORICAL INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

It is not difficult to understand the reason that School Journeys and Excursions did not form an organic part of the curricula of English schools in the centuries preceding the year eighteen hundred. Neither ignorance of the educational method involved nor of the pedagogic value of such expeditions forbade that organic use in, at any rate, the more notable periods of English educational history. A national need had not arisen. The English schoolboy possessed national characteristics and natural opportunities that did away with the necessity of school journeys in the days before modern industrial enterprise transformed the educational problem by aggregating vast masses of humanity in narrow, ugly, yet select centres of production and trade. But with the opening of the new era such ignorance and such need were apparent enough. Children in these centres of industry for the first half of the nineteenth century were scarcely educated at all; their ignorance, their environment and work prevented any adequate expression of national characteristics. It is for this reason a matter of some importance to lay preliminary emphasis on the early history of nature study and of the relationship of nature to school life. A blank period intervenes between the educational methods of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance and of the revival of to-day. In the old times there was not the need for the self-conscious return to nature. The unconscious relationship of national life to natural life achieved the results that we aim at, or some of them. Life itself co-ordinated the things learnt in the school or University with the events of daily life. Of course, in so far as mediæval scholasticism governed the curriculum, this was not true in the case of the famous scholars of the Middle Ages, but it was true in so far as the average child or student was concerned. The scholar and the student derived from rural surroundings in one case and from the long journeys between home and the Universities in the other case that "open-air" outlook on life, that sense of nature which becomes apparent in the literature of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. To-day rural surroundings are in the vast bulk of instances absent from the daily life of the young people who in the Middle Ages would have composed the section of the nation attending school or the Universities. In the sixteenth century the University was a great secondary school, and the boys who filled it did so under conditions that rendered a knowledge of rural life an essential though unconscious part of his education. To-day we have to create those conditions by conscious effort, and in doing so it is possible for us to make the knowledge more immediately effective than it was in the Middle Ages and even in

the period of the Renaissance. We can make the acquaintanceship with nature involve a new hygienic value, and we can use the observation of nature as a definite instrument in the acquisition of historical, geographical and scientific knowledge. No doubt there is loss in the self-conscious return to nature, but there is also gain. It must also be remembered that the Renaissance return to nature was not wholly or even essentially unconscious. As we shall see, in rapidly tracing the ideas of Renaissance and later thinkers on the relationship of nature and education, the return to nature was consciously advocated as a re-action from the theories and pure intellectualism of the schoolmen. To-day a similar re-action is taking place, and it is therefore important to consider the early evolution of the idea of nature study.

It is usual to trace back the genesis of the school excursion to the ideas of Jean Jacques Rousseau. To do so is, however, scarcely accurate. Rousseau's ideas on the subject were by no means original, though they brought the school journey into prominence in Germany. The scholars' expeditions were in one sense the greatest educational force of the Middle Ages when young University students, boys of fourteen or fifteen years, wandered over Europe in the periods devoted to vacation, alone, or in small companies, taking with them in some cases (in Switzerland, for instance) younger school children as "fags." In England the wandering scholar was a notable fact of social life as late as the Commonwealth. An epigram or an epitaph, a wedding couplet or a birthday verse, was the price that he paid for board and lodging. He was an institution supported, if not created, by the joint efforts of Parliament and the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, who recognised and encouraged the wandering of the poor scholar. By a statute of 1388\* it was provided that poor University scholars might beg if licensed by their Chancellor.

In the fourteenth century England was a famous *locus* of the scholars' journey. Scholars poured into the country from Ireland, Scotland, Wales, and the Continent. From the first the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge were centres, "*Ubi convenit multitudo studentium*."† Thither and thence, under royal licence, scholarship moved throughout the islands and over seas. The travelling was part of the education. The scholars were very young, and tramping the roads was the only means by which the schoolboys could reach the Universities. Jean le Charlier de Gerson, afterwards the famous Chancellor of Paris, had to tramp many a long league before he could join the University of Paris. There are numerous statutory references to the travelling scholar. In 1410, by a statute passed at a Parliament held in Dublin, it was ordered that "no Irishman adheringe to the enemyes shal be suffred hencforth to pase over the sea, by color of goinge to the scooles of Oxford, Cambridge, or els where."‡

\* 12 Richard II. cap. 7 directs "that the Scholars of the Universities that go so begging, have Letters testimonial of their Chancellour."

† Close Rolls, (1227-1231), 15 Henry III. m. 14d. (p. 586).

‡ 11 Henry IV. cap. 24. See Tracts relating to Ireland (Dublin, 1843) printed for the Irish Archaeological Society, Vol. ii., p. 137.

In 1413\* the Irish generally, including Irish mendicant clerks ("Chamber Deacons"), were excluded from the realm; but exceptions were made in favour of Irish Graduates in the Schools, Sergeants and Apprentices of the law. In 1417 the Privy Council received a petition from Ireland asking that all the Irish should be sent back for the defence of the realm except beneficed clergy, law students, and scholars at the University (*escolers estudientes in les Universitees*). In 1422 the statute 1 Henry VI. c. 3 prohibited Irishmen from being principals of halls in the Universities and ordered Irishmen coming to the University to bring testimonials. In the following year† Irish students were ordered to bring sureties. In 1429‡ the law as to the Irish students was confirmed, but the King and the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, despite a petition from the Commons, refused to extend it to disorderly Scotch and Welsh students, (though the latter in 1400-1 had fled and rebelled against the Crown)§ or to exclude from one University, students who had been expelled from the other.

The principle of the act of 1388 was followed in 1495 and again in 1503-4.|| Throughout the fifteenth century the wandering scholars moved about England. Anthony à Wood, writing under the date 1461,¶ says that "it was usual for scholars so to do." The sixteenth century encouraged these young travellers. A statute of 1530\*\* orders "Scolers of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge that goo about beggyng, *not beyng authorysed under the Seale of the sayde Universities*," to be regarded as "stronge beggers" and punished. The poor travelling scholar disappeared in the seventeenth century at the very date when the new Educationalists were advocating the school journey and continental travel became the last stage of the education of the rich. But the peregrinations of poor scholars were no longer very welcome when the royal scholar James I. wandered south to the English throne. William Lambard, in the edition (p. 38) of his "Duties of Constables" published in 1602, declares that "everie person above the age of seven yeeres that calleth himself a schollar, and goeth about begging," is a rogue, vagabond, or sturdy beggar. "The seal of the University," however, for another half-century guaranteed a scholar board and bed.††

No doubt it may be said with truth that these scholar journeys were not organised in the pedagogic sense. They were, however, an expression of the national spirit, and received the special

\* 1 Henry V. c. 8 and 4 Rot. Parl. pp. 13, 102, 190, 254, 255.

† 2 Henry VI. cap. 8.

‡ 8 Henry VI. 4 Rot. Parl. pp. 349, 358.

§ 3 Rot. Parl. p. 457.

|| 11 Henry VII. c. 2, ss. 1, 2; 19 Henry VII. c. 12. s. 2.

¶ See Gutch's edition of Wood's "Oxford," Vol. i., pp. 619-620.

\*\* 22 Henry VIII. c. 12.

†† See also Lambard's *Eirenarcha*, p. 420. At Malton in the North Riding as late as 1640 "a man, calling himself by the name of a Scholler, having been taken begginge by colour of a passe which appears to be counterfoote" was punished (North Riding Record Society: Quarter Sessions Records, Vol. IV., p. 183. Rev J. C. Atkinson.)

sanction both of Parliament and of the educational authorities who controlled the Universities and the Grammar Schools. Indeed, no advanced education could be had without the aid of such journeys. But the pedagogic conception of the school journey and of nature study did not arise until the mediæval scholars' travelling days were almost done. This conception was, however, in the air when men still could see, to use the words of Sir Thomas More, poor scholars of Oxford go a-begging with their bags and wallets. The early middle ages, indeed, were not without hints of such a conception. The treatise *de Utensilibus* of Alexander Neckam (who died in 1217), and a vocabulary of the names of plants (in Latin, Anglo-Norman, and English), of the same period\* give us some suggestions of nature study, while Mr. Oswald Cockayne has edited for the Rolls series a work† that gives some considerable idea of the practical botany of the Middle Ages. The *Vocabula Magistri*, by John Stanbridge (1463-1510), was a renaissance work in part perhaps founded on Neckam's book, but far better. At this very period Rabelais (1483-1553) was advocating practical work and nature study for children. Gargantua and his companions "did recreate themselves with bottling, cleaving, and sawing, and threshing sheaves of corn in the barn. They also studied the arts of painting and carving." Rabelais may have learnt something of his new ideas from the work of Vittorino da Feltre (1378-1446), in whose Palace School at Mantua both natural history and natural philosophy were taught to the pupils. Rabelais, however, goes on to lay down general educational principles. Gargantua advises the child Pantagruel as follows:—

"In the matter of the knowledge of the works of nature, I would have thee to study that exactly; so that there be no sea, river, or fountain of which thou dost not know the fishes; all the fowls of the air; all the general kinds of shrubs and trees, whether in forest or orchard; all the parts of herbs and flowers that grow upon the ground; all the various metals that are hid within the bowels of the earth; together with all the diversity of precious stones that are to be seen in the orient and south parts of the world; let nothing of all these be hidden from thee." ‡

Erasmus, likewise, advocates nature study, in order to give life to the mind. No doubt these writers had not altogether our modern ends in view, but they certainly felt the unity of all knowledge and the reaction of all forms of study upon character and brain power; and their ideas were not merely in the air, for Trotzendorf (*circa* 1520) and Neander brought the study of nature and history into school life.

When we turn to England, we find Sir Thomas Elyot (*circa* 1523), the author of "*The Governour*," advocating the use in school life of practical work—such as painting and carving, of

\* See "State Intervention in English Education," p. 2, note 2 (Cambridge University Press, 1902), by the present writer.

† See "Leechdom's Wortcunning and Starcraft of Early England." Collected and edited by the Rev. Oswald Cockayne. (3 vols. Rolls series, 1864.)

‡ "Educational Opinion from the Renaissance," by S. S. Lawrie, p. 51.

music and games. Roger Ascham (1515-1568), likewise recommends the educational use of physical exercises and recreation, and of music as a school subject. The idea of nature study was indeed in the air. Montaigne, in his protest against the abuse of the rod, exclaims, "How much more decent it would be to see their classes strewn with green leaves and fine flowers, than with the bloody stumps of birch and willow! Were it left to my ordering, I would paint the school with the pictures of Joy and Gladness, Flora and the Graces, that where the profit of the pupils is, there might their pleasure also be." Francis Bacon also largely contributed to the general educational ideas of the new age, and in particular by the influence of his thought over Comenius.

John Amos Komensky, known to history as Comenius (1592-1671), laid down the Baconian principle that "As far as possible men are to be taught to become wise, not by books, but by the Heavens, the Earth, oaks, and beeches; that is, they must learn to know and examine the things themselves, and not the observations and testimony of others about the things."\* This is the position aimed at to-day, and particularly approached by the school journey. Comenius was not able, as indeed we are not fully able, to reach this position in practice, but he laid down a principle which is incontrovertible, and represents a high educational ideal.

In the "Great Didactic," however, Comenius to some extent descends to detail. He recommends that the education of youth should have as its penultimate stage, foreign travel. Richard Mulcaster, it should be noted (1533-1611), two generations earlier had violently attacked this practice of foreign travel as a stage in education, though on scarcely sound grounds. The "Great Didactic" lays down a principle partially adopted in recent years by the Board of Education. "The same branches of knowledge are to be studied in each of the four periods into which the twenty-four educable years are divided, the differences being, those which the varying stages of mental development in the pupil make inevitable. The school seeks to make the pupil learned in things, as distinct from words, to give him real learning, the knowledge of Res, "Reals," Realien. . . . The boys and girls must learn 'to measure skilfully in the accustomed manner, length, breadth, and distances, they must learn so much of economics, of politics, and of mechanical principles as will enable them to understand ordinary daily life at home and in their State, nor may they be ignorant of the course of the world's history as set forth in the most general way; to this must be added the chief things in Cosmography, as the rotundity of the Heavens, the globe of the Earth hanging in the midst, the movement of the Ocean, the various straits of Seas and Rivers, the chief divisions

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\* *Didactica Magna*, ch. xviii. 28, and see also Adamson's invaluable *Pioneers of Modern Education*, Cambridge University Press, 1905, p. 52.

† Adamson, p. 61.

of the world, the chief Kingdoms of Europe ; but above all, the Cities, Mountains and Rivers of their Fatherland, and whatsoever is memorable therein' (Ch. xxix. 6).\* 'Whatever is taught should be taught as a thing which is actual (*res præsens*) and of a certain use. Let the pupil see that what he learns is not something from the land of Nowhere, or matters relating to the Platonic Ideas, but things which verily surround us, a true knowledge of which will confer real advantage in our life. So will his mind be keener in attack and more accurate in discernment' (Ch. xx. 16). This is the cry of Pestalozzi, 'It is *life* that educates.' It was the principle which was in the end to assure a place in the ordinary school-course for modern studies."<sup>†</sup>

Comenius would bring the pupil within touch of nature at every turn. Each school must have a garden where the children may "feast their eyes by the inspection of trees, flowers, and plants." The study of things is the beginning of learning: things as they seem in nature, not as they seem in books. "Comenius' philosophy is a sensationalist philosophy: the mind of the little child is figured by Aristotle's blank tablet, his brain by wax. All the writing subsequently found on that tablet, all the moulding of that wax, are to be explained as the outcome of sights, sounds, and all other varieties of sense-experience conveyed to the mind through the organs of sense, and connected with each other by powers which Comenius calls 'internal senses.'"<sup>‡</sup>

Such a philosophy is only partially true ; it does not give us a complete educational theory of reality, or show us the general purposefulness of things, or even hint at the idealism which belongs to any effective educational system. But so far as it goes it is true ; it represents a definite educational stage which we have not reached yet, but which is before us as an immediate goal. The incomplete realism of Comenius is a necessary stage, and it can only be reached by the organic relation (through the direct effort of a central authority) of nature study, school expeditions, and organised Vacation Schools to the school life of the country. At least one English educational writer of the age of Comenius—William Petty—was anxious to carry the "real" idea so far that "a child, before he learned to read or write," should be given such a practical acquaintance with Things and Actions that he could easily test the value of a book as soon as he could read it.||

For this purpose Petty recommended education through the medium of gardens, menageries, museums, geographical collections, astronomical observatories, and picture galleries. All children should have a technical training, and, if bound an apprentice, should spend the latter four years of the period "in travelling to learn breeding, and the perfection of their Trades."

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\* Adamson, pp. 63-64.

† *Ibid.*, pp. 66-9.

‡ *Ibid.*, p. 69.

|| *Ibid.*, p. 131.



John Dury (1596-1680) carried Petty's position a step further, anticipated something of Froebelian methods—the apparently free co-operation of pupils in the orderly development of the curriculum—and foreran Herbart by insisting “that all studies, while following the principle of sequence, must unite in leading the pupil to achieve the true end of learning, and that due connection should be maintained between different branches of learning.”\* St. Jean-Baptiste de la Salle (1651-1719) introduced the practice of nature study into his famous Christian Schools. The Pietist Schools of A. H. Francke (1663-1727) spread the same idea in Germany.

Professor Rein and Herr Scholz have given us some interesting notes as to the development of the school journey in Germany. They mention a form of mediæval journey known as the Rod-journey (*Virgatum-gehen* or *Rutenzug*) used as a punishment for naughty children, but without any educational meaning. The same must be said of the school journeys on the Brocken of the scholars of Quedlinburg in 1634. But Montaigne and Comenius show us that *real* school journeys existed in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Francke followed indeed in the footsteps of Comenius. Rousseau, we are told (but, as we have seen, not quite accurately), was the first to exercise educational influence over the school journey: “*Rousseau ist der geistige Vater desselben.*”† He drew in fact his ideas from Montaigne and developed them.

Basedow in 1774 was the first to work out a scheme of school journeys as part of an educational plan, and from his institution at Dessau the new educational method spread, in a way very profitable to education, through Germany. Salzmann, at Schnepfenthal, carefully worked out the pedagogic idea of school-journeys, and made them an actual part of his school curriculum. We are told that his journeys were as good as the best are to-day. One point insisted on was to bring before the pupils, in connection with the journey, the names of famous men worthy of imitation—a point insufficiently considered in modern journeys. He also insisted on the girls' school journey (not too seriously undertaken in Germany to-day) and it was specially planned to teach them their duties in life. Salzmann aimed at an educational system that should make the lives of men harmless, useful, and contented, ripe in judgment and refined in character, and should give the school-master a “healthy, understanding, good, and happy people” upon whom to exercise his art. These aspirations were breathed a hundred years ago, amid the din and turmoil of the Napoleonic wars. His ideas were taken up forty years later by Bender at his institution at Weinheim and improved. ‡ Bender's long school journeys served

\* Adamson, p. 147.

† Aus dem Pädagogischen Universitäts-Seminar zu Jena, Heft 3, p. 79 (Langensalza, 1891).

‡ The early nineteenth century had a system of short-day journeys or very long ones lasting for months. Jean Paul Richter substituted for this system journeys lasting a few weeks by which children were taken from dark towns into beautiful scenery.

for the free development of the personality of each pupil, and the journey was a compulsory part of his course. Bender's programmes of 1845 and 1859 show us exactly the relationship between the school work and the journey at that date. The school journey, lasting two or three weeks afoot, supplemented the teaching and filled up gaps that could in no other way be bridged, but it was not yet organically related to the school curriculum. Bender's theory, however, underlies all later German theories on this subject. K. V. Stoy, for some time a teacher at Bender's Institute at Weinheim, carried Bender's ideas to Jena. In 1852 he took school journeys at Jena with his Seminar school. The idea was rapidly adopted by more than twenty seminars. The journeys proved a connecting link between the teaching of the school and the University,\* and this fact created an enthusiasm for the system that carried it throughout Germany. All modern German school journeys are under the influence of Stoy and the Seminar founded by him at Jena. Ziller, of Leipzig, developed Bender's theory along lines closely related to Stoy's practical system, and Ziller's method was taken up by Dr. Rein who, about the year 1876, was the first to bring school journeys into close relation to the teaching plan, making them an essential part of his system of education, and making the capacity to lead a journey a necessary part of a teacher's training. The system was rapidly taken up by sixteen German states, and now school journeys are universal and in some places they are obligatory. Stoy's example is still influential in determining the character of the journey. At Stoy's school in Jena two journeys of four days each are made in the summer, all scholars and teachers taking part in three divisions. In the autumn, in the month of August, there is a journey that lasts fourteen to sixteen days. In this journey the scholars are divided into three classes, each in three parts. It should be noted that in the case of short journeys the total cost per head each day should not exceed one shilling and sixpence, while no public school journey should exceed three shillings per head each day.

The lesson of history seems to me to be that the school journey should be a national affair, definitely controlled by the Central Educational Authority. Its pedagogic value is its capacity to bring into living union the various departments of school work, and strict supervision is necessary in order that this linking up may be made as effective and as normal as possible. The journey must not only be an integral part of the school life but an integral part of the educational system, thus not only linking up departments of work, but schools with schools and grades with grades from the infant school to the university.

## II. TWO FRENCH EXPERIMENTS.

It will be found helpful to consider in some detail continental experience in the details of school expeditions. It must,

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\* The journeys of the young university students in the Middle Ages had the same effect.

however, be remembered that though school expeditions of some sort or another are almost universal in the case of secondary or higher grade schools throughout Germany, yet these expeditions vary very considerably in quality and educational usefulness. The high educational example of Jena is by no means followed in all other districts, and instances have been brought to my knowledge in which the day journeys were positively demoralising by reason of the incapacity or misconduct of the teacher in charge of the party. It is absolutely essential to the usefulness of a school expedition that it should be under the control of a very highly trained and enthusiastic teacher.

The work done in France by the French Alpine Club—founded in 1874 for the regeneration of the nation, "*au lendemain de nos désastres*," is worthy of all praise. One of the fundamental objects of the club was "*l'organisation des caravanes scolaires*." In 1875 the president of the club, M. Cézanne, député des Hautes-Alpes, summarised the object of these journeys in the following words:—"Arracher les jeunes gens à l'énervante oisiveté des villes, organiser pendant les vacances ces caravanes scolaires dès longtemps pratiquées en Suisse et en Allemagne dont Töpffer a si spirituellement illustré les joyeuses péripéties, et qui laissent dans la mémoire de ceux qui y ont pris part, un souvenir ineffaçable."

The Club created a Commission especially to organise school expeditions, walks, excursions and journeys for the pupils of *lycées* and *collèges*. The whole question was discussed at a Conference called on October 28th, 1905, by M. Julien Bregeault in the grand amphitheatre of the Sorbonne, and held under the presidency of M. Bienvenu-Martin, *Ministre de l'Instruction Publique, des Beaux-Arts et des Cultes*.<sup>\*</sup> At this Conference the work now being done by the Commission was described. The President is M. Richard, "*le Töpffer français*." His work has, however, been in fact more elaborate and detailed than that of the German enthusiast. Töpffer only travels with his own pupils, and in the longer vacations. M. Richard travels all the year round with any pupils who may be available: "*petites excursions et grand voyages, plaines et montagnes, partout il entraîne sa bande joyeuse, qui l'adore: actuellement il a fourni plus de quatre cent journées de direction effective, sans compter les courses qu'il suit en amateur*."

He is helped in his work by two professors of the faculty of science, by a specialist in history, archæology, and geography, M. Leroy, who has worked at the movement from the first, and others. Two doctors accompany the expeditions; "*Ceci va rassurer les mères de famille*." In France, as in England, the fears of parents are found greatly to hinder the progress of school journeys. This is in fact, however, a desirable check, for it secures the guidance of efficient and desirable leaders. No careful parent, either here or in France, would or should allow

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<sup>\*</sup> "*Revue Pédagogique*." Nouvelle serie. Tome XLVII. No. 11. November, 1905. pp. 464-474. Paris.

a child to join a school expedition unless a known teacher or leader of an absolutely reliable type is in charge.

The French Alpine Club expeditions are open to all scholars from *lycées* and *collèges* from the age of nine or ten years up to the age of military service, provided that the scholar can produce a written authorisation from his parents and a record of good conduct. There is only one form of punishment: exclusion or expulsion from the expedition. In 1904 the Paris section of the Club organised four long expeditions and seventy-four excursions in the immediate vicinity of Paris. The total number of attendances was 2,399 by 514 scholars. In the first seven months of 1905 there were 59 expeditions, including three long journeys, with 1722 attendances. The work was not restricted to the Paris section. At Lille, Marseilles, Lyons, important work was done while "les sections de Canigon, de la Drôme, d'Embrau, de Beaune, de Lons-le-Saunier, de Tarbes, de Pau, de Nice, ont également, mais à des intervalles plus espacés, procuré aux élèves de lycées et collèges de très intéressantes courses au grand air et dans la montagne." But the work has not yet in any sense reached the bulk of the secondary schools, and even in Paris not one-twentieth of the secondary scholars have been brought into the movement.

The cause of the comparatively slow extension of the movement, after the continuous efforts of thirty years, is probably the fact that these journeys are not a living part of the school life. They are organised from without and not from within. Every effort, indeed, is made to obtain full touch with the schools, and the movement has the full approval of the educational authorities. Every Thursday and Sunday during the school year excursions are made in the environs of Paris, at a cost to each pupil not exceeding two francs. This does not include food, which is frequently brought by the pupils and eaten in the open air. During the short holidays the Commission organises short expeditions, occupying two or three days, to some picturesque district or historic town or site. Twice a year—at Easter and at the beginning of the long vacation—journeys lasting ten days are made in France or abroad as far as Algiers, but mountainous regions—the Alps, the Pyrenees, the Vosges, the Jura, the region of Mont Blanc—are the favourite districts with those who join these long expeditions; which cost per head, at the most, all told, a little over six pounds. M. Bregeault complains of the indifference of French families to the undoubted advantages of these expeditions. He attributes it largely to the fears of the mothers—their unfounded fears, for no accident or sickness has ever marred an expedition—and public ignorance of the work done by the French Alpine Club. But neither reason is the real explanation. The work of the Club is external, and for success to be secured, for these journeys to become an integral part of child life, the work must be internal, must be organised within the school itself as part of the daily life of the school, as part of the normal education. M. Bregeault pleads for the scholar's journey with great eloquence on the grounds of personal

and national health, and no doubt on those grounds it ought to be supported. But unless the journey becomes a recognised part of national education, extending to the primary schools, it will not attract the parents as it ought. At present in France the school-journey is an "extra," a desirable "extra" no doubt, but still something not recognised as an essential instrument of education. Until it is so recognised it cannot become universal.

Yet the need of such an instrument of education in France becomes manifest enough when we turn from the pupils of the *lycées* and *collèges* to the children of the slum schools. Sir Edmund Verney, in an admirable paper,\* has given us facts that are startling enough. In 1887, twelve years after the French Alpine Club started its patriotic movement, Dr. Graux, a leading doctor at Contrexéville, being struck with "the condition of the children in the Paris slums, the high rate of mortality, the deterioration, physical and moral, of the survivors, the anæmic condition of the children at the end of the school year," projected, in conjunction with M. Duval, a country holiday home for poor Parisian children. M. Duval "was a member of the municipal council of one of the poorest and most crowded quarters of Paris, known as the XIth Arrondissement," a district with a working population of 220,000. The idea of these two social workers was to bring before the *gamin* "a simpler and happier mode of life," and suggested that this end would be attained if some Paris municipality were to acquire land and buildings in a rural district to form a country resort for the poorest class of children in its elementary schools. Dr. Graux and M. Duval, in pursuance of their plan, bought a disused château of the seventeenth century at Mandres, and M. Duval handed it over to the Caisse d'Ecole of the XIth Arrondissement, furnished and ready for occupation. The original building supplied large dormitories and store rooms as well as a committee room, while new buildings added to the château a refectory with kitchens, and above them day rooms and a small library.

"The refectory opens into a wide glazed verandah, giving shelter to the children in wet weather, and, except while actually eating or sleeping, the children live out of doors. The one instruction given to the teachers in charge is to keep the children happy and amused in the open air. The only task insisted upon is a weekly letter to the parents, which is utilised to make them give a connected account of what they are seeing and doing."

It was to this life that two hundred "pale, weary, eager little boys" came in the summer of 1889. So the scheme started. The full proposal was to take in all, during the year, a thousand children from the age of ten to fourteen years, securing to each child three weeks holiday. Since only two hundred could be taken at a time the long summer holiday is not sufficient for the purpose. It was consequently necessary to work in intimate touch with the school authorities, thus securing a system that really operates from *within* the school and makes the school holiday an organic part of the school life. The first question to be decided, in view of

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\* "Children's Country Holiday in France," by Sir Edmund Verney, Bart. (*Good Words*, January, 1903).

the fact that some children must go to the holiday school in term time, is as to the class of children who are to lose their school work. The right principle was at once adopted. In the month of May, the children who are to take the holiday in school time are chosen from among those "who, from weak health or dull brains, are making the least progress in their studies." Thus a month of school work is given up to secure physical health, and the children on their return to Paris have their full school holiday. "Alternate batches of two hundred boys and two hundred girls are despatched throughout the summer, not a day being lost, the children returning from Mandres crossing the train by the way bringing a fresh party down from Paris." The last party of the year are composed of the pick of the schools in character and ability, some of whom are leaving school. All other children are back in Paris in time for the re-opening of the schools on October 1st. The effort, in fact, is made to reverse the normal and cruel order of nature, to give to those that have not, and to make up for the physical and moral loss that the poorest children inevitably suffer in the urban struggle for life.

It is worthy of notice that with this class of child no difficulty is made by the parents. In the middle class the parents are often too ready to sacrifice the gain to be derived from the school holiday to the fear of illness, or injury while away from home. No doubt the very poor parents are not sorry to be spared the cost of maintaining the children during the three weeks, but their readiness to allow the children to go cannot be assigned to this cause. They are delighted at the pleasure and benefit that the children are certain to derive from the holiday, and they have an official guarantee of safe custody. The difficulty of the parents is in England and France alike restricted to the less poor. Sir Edmund Verney gives a useful account of the method adopted in sending off a party to Mandres. Each child chosen has a number, and "he goes off to the Mairie of the Arrondissement in Paris, where 400 strong little wooden valises, each numbered and with its own key, are stored. . . . A dark cloth cap is presented to each boy, and forms a distinguishing mark." The boxes are returned to the Mairie next day packed and are then strongly fastened together in tens and sent to meet the children at the *Gare de l'Est*. The children are booked at the military (quarter) fares and go by a slow train, which, starting at 9.0 in the morning, reaches Contrexéville at 5.30 p.m. "Here the tradesmen who are purveyors of the school colony undertake to supply carts whenever required for the use of the children." Ten long light Lorraine carts take them in parties of twenty to the holiday houses. "Each child is weighed and measured on arrival and on departure; the average gain for boys is two kilogrammes (4½ pounds), and for girls one to one and a half (about 3 pounds). Some boys have gained as much as eight pounds in the three weeks. When the girls are given some form of the gymnastic exercises now confined to the boys, their increase in weight and width of chest may perhaps be as striking as is already the case with the boys. The greatest change in their appearance is wrought during

the first eight days of their holiday; the skin becomes much clearer, and the whole aspect of the children is brighter. Life, which has been an anxious fight to many a little street arab, has suddenly become a tranquil state, sheltered from worry, in which cruelty and hunger are unknown. The mere quiet and silence of the country have a soothing influence, greatly aided by the unwontedly generous diet and kindly surroundings. After the first week the children begin to put on flesh and to relish the change of food, although some, accustomed to the stimulant of black coffee, with perhaps a dash of rum in it, despise at first the hot morning milk, which they say is only fit for feeding pigs; but when once they have taken to it they enjoy it and thrive upon it. The diet is abundant and excellent; after the hot milk-soup in the morning there is a substantial mid-day meal of stewed meat and vegetables, when each child has before him his tiny bottle of red wine; a bowl of milk at 4 p.m. and a supper of soup, roast meat, vegetables and fruit, with plenty of fine white bread at every meal." There is ample provision for bathing.

"In the short space of three weeks it is found that the change in the child's manners is almost as marked as in his bodily health. Cleanly habits of thought and action, perhaps hitherto unknown, the discipline of good manners at meals, and the unselfishness induced by the common life of a well-ordered community, tell upon the character quickly at such an impressionable age. Something practical is effected in combating what in some cases are inherited tendencies to evil. The scowl of the hunted animal is giving way to the natural gaiety of childhood, and this applies to the girls quite as much as to the boys. The girls do not get so much exercise as the boys but they are trained in household matters, cleanliness, order, and good management."

The holiday has its educational side. The long walks in the lovely woods are themselves lessons in nature study, and the children are specially taught to observe the various objects of the forest, the stems and roots, leaves and flowers, birds and beetles. "The village may be described as one vast farm yard." The children are brought into actual contact with Nature herself and with man working on the soil. The produce and the beauty of the world take a new reality from such an experience. Much depends, of course, on the self-sacrifice of the leaders and this is abounding. Each one only receives for three weeks thirty francs in addition to his or her keep, and for this has to be ceaselessly on duty, for the children are never left unattended day or night. "All are lay teachers; no religious instruction is given, but the children whose parents desire it are taken to the parish church, which is just outside the School Colony gate." Sir Edmund Verney usefully compares the Country Holiday Movement in Paris and London. The expense in France is greater; one thousand children for three weeks each cost 60,000 francs or £2,400, namely 60 francs (£2 8s. 0d.) for each child. "In England 10s. is paid for the keep of each child in a cottage

home for a fortnight, which scarcely pays the cottager unless two or three are taken together; the parents contribute to the railway fares, and nothing is paid for supervision from the moment when the child has started from the railway station in London. The French children are better and more scientifically fed, and enjoy a holiday of three weeks instead of two, and above all they are assured of getting it." In London the loss of voluntary subscriptions or an epidemic may deprive the most needy children of their holiday. "The French realise more readily than we do what an admirable national investment is the spending of money for the health and the education of the children, who are the only true wealth of a State." On the other hand our system "has charms and advantages of its own. London children, who are affectionately welcomed by the country secretary, generally a lady, and put into suitable homes, are introduced into quite a new world; make fresh, often lasting, friendships, and experience for themselves both the advantages and the drawbacks of country life. They take their share in the village interests, challenge the country boys to cricket, and generally beat them, and if a few apples are stolen and some rabbits and squirrels have a bad time of it, the independent life that our boys lead affords a valuable training of character. They are trusted, and are usually worthy of trust. They swarm into the hay fields and ride in the waggons and are treated everywhere with good-natured tolerance, and are allowed to try their hands at all sorts of occupations. . . . Boys and girls leave laden with gifts of flowers, fruit, and vegetables, which, with the characteristic generosity of the poor, the cottage-mothers often send back to the unknown mothers in London. Many a boy after he has gone to work in succeeding years has returned to the same kind hearth when a rare holiday has given him a day out of town; in some cases the parents of a delicate child have boarded him out for several months, or even years, in the village where his country holiday was spent, and under these conditions children of younger age can be sent to an experienced cottage-mother than are dealt with in France. Such spontaneous and valuable friendships are impossible under the French system. The boys are always treated as children; no surreptitious knife or ball drops out of a trouser-pocket; work and play are alike regulated; the School Colony is entirely self-contained, and enters into no relations with the village community. Much of the contrast has deep root in the different habits of the two nations; but an English observer has something to learn from the generous endowment and scientific organisation of the children's country holiday in France."

### III.—VACATION SCHOOLS.

It will be convenient here to turn for a short space from Continental experiments in order to contrast the English tentative methods of dealing with very poor urban children in vacation time, with the interesting Parisian experiment just described,



The French and the English and American workers have all something of the same end in view. To save the children from the streets, to prevent the holiday time destroying the moral and mental benefit of the school time, to do something that will help *physique*, is in the mind of all workers. The French, however, lay chief weight on physical improvement in the children, the Americans on pure recreation and amusement, the English on recreative but utilitarian occupation. Perhaps it would be fairer to compare, as is done by Sir Edmund Verney, the French holiday school with the English boarding-out system, since it may be said that as the French school is a boarding school and the English is a day school, the work done is not comparable. But, inasmuch as the aim of the two methods is much the same, it will be useful here to deal with the Vacation School organised by Mrs. Humphry Ward, and held at the Tavistock Place Settlement.\* Some combination of the ideas exemplified in the two systems may then become apparent.

The school ground and buildings are adjacent to the Duke of Bedford's "large, beautifully designed, neatly kept, and well-wooded garden," and this fact gives a touch of nature to the happy school day. There are also available for investigation the sites, overgrown with vegetation, of some demolished houses, and this has proved very useful for nature study. The report on the Vacation School† held in 1903 gives us in valuable elaboration the scheme followed. The following passage sets forth the aim of those who organised this school.

"The school aimed at giving the children something to do, in place of roaming listlessly about in street or alley, with nothing to tempt them to action save the ever-present opportunity for mischief. Children such as we had cannot amuse themselves. They have little imagination or initiative, and, as a rule, unless acting under guidance, fail to give their desire for amusement and occupation suitable shape. They roam about, suffering from a peculiar childish *ennui*, and actually long for the return of the normal school days and the cessation of the wearisome holidays. The purpose of the school was to change all this. It sought to satisfy the hunger for occupation by setting the children something to find out, or something to do. It sought to care for the physical well-being of the scholars by carefully organised exercises. It sought to raise the children's ideals of morals and conduct by direct and indirect instruction. It sought to show the children that coming to know and learning to do, are, in themselves, some of the truest of pleasures. It sought to afford pleasure chiefly to those children who were doomed, from one cause or another, to remain in London throughout the vacation, and so go sea-less, fresh-air-less, and joyless." The children were drawn from a dozen local Elementary Schools—

\* The Holiday School at Osea Island described below may be compared with the French School at Mandres. The Dutch Health Colonies dealt with below should also be considered.

† Vacation School Report to the London School Board by the Director of the Vacation School held at The Passmore Edwards' Settlement,

some Voluntary, some Board Schools. 1,500 forms of application for admission were printed, parts of these were filled up by teachers at the various schools and the rest by applicants at the Settlement itself. Subsequently, 329 personal applications were made. Of the 1,500 printed forms 1,352 were sent in, and consequently there were 1,681 applications for the 750 available school places. The organisers issued 750 invitations to attend. Of these children, 184 did not come, and 88 only attended once or twice, and therefore 272 additional scholars were invited. Some few of the guests were excluded by contagious illness, and other children did not want to stay more than 14 or 21 days, so that a few additional invitations were issued from time to time. In all 1,149 invitations were issued, and 965 children attended school once or more. The number of children on the attendance roll was intended to be kept at 750, and in fact it worked out at 751. It had been calculated that this would give an average attendance of 600, and in fact the average attendance worked out at 601·9. *Thus, on the average, 80 per cent of the children attended without any system of machinery for securing regular attendance.* Even on the wettest days—and 40 per cent. of the days were wet—the attendance was never bad. The school-going habit has indeed become a second nature to the town child. The session of the Vacation School opened on the first Monday following the closing of the elementary schools, and closed on the Friday before they re-opened. No time for acquiring a loafing habit was given, and the children at once were taught to enjoy their holiday. The children assembled each day at 9.45 and 4.45 in the court on the east side of the settlement. At 10.0 a.m. and 5.0 p.m. religious exercises (consisting of a hymn, the Lord's Prayer, the Beatitudes and an address, lasting in all fifteen minutes) were conducted in the court during fine weather and in the gymnasium at other times, on Monday, Wednesday and Friday by a minister of the Church of England, and on Tuesday and Thursday by a minister belonging to one of the Free Churches. The postcard of invitation had informed the parents that they could withdraw their children from the religious exercise if they so wished, but only one child was actually withdrawn. The parents of three other children desired to withdraw their children, but in fact their children did not attend the school at all. It will be remembered that in the case of the school at Mandres the French children were only given religious instruction if the parents wished it. In the case of the London School the parents were assumed to wish the instruction to be given, unless they expressed a contrary desire. The fundamental difference of outlook can scarcely be discussed here, but its importance cannot be over-rated. It is to be noticed that in the Settlement school discipline was easily maintained and the general tone of the children was good. No children were expelled for unruly behaviour. "They were orderly in coming, orderly in assembling, orderly in class, and orderly in going home. They were cheerfully obedient, happy and free, hardly ever venturing to presume on the kindness shown them

and invariably keeping within the bounds of reason." There was no system of punishment except the greatly feared threat "not to come again." In the case of the Mandres school the children appear to have been under a much closer system of oversight: but one is tempted to think that the children in the Settlement school were of a somewhat higher type than the children at Mandres.

The curriculum of the school was made up of the following kinds of instruction:—

- (1) Manual training (Woodwork for older boys).
- (2) Housewifery and cookery (older girls and occasionally boys).
- (3) Singing, Musical Drill, Physical Exercises, Gymnastics (Boxing for older boys).
- (4) Story-telling.
- (5) Clay modelling.
- (6) Dancing.
- (7) Nature Study.
- (8) Brush work and Drawing.
- (9) Reading Room (Story Books).
- (10) Dramatics (in preparation for a performance at the end of the term).
- (11) Needle-work (dolldressing), Basketwork, and Cane-weaving.
- (12) Lantern story-telling.
- (13) Ambulance work and Nursing (including the washing and dressing a baby).
- (14) Swimming (boys and girls).
- (15) Sand digging.

The children were divided into ten classes from A (the eldest children) to K or L, separate kindergarten classes. These little people were about five years of age and had a special time-table under a responsible mistress. "The work taken included stories, building games, paper-folding, cutting and pasting, nature study, chalking, singing, colouring, clay-modelling, soap-bubble blowing, skipping, ship-sailing, and other recreative occupations—the delights of infant years."

Except in the case of Woodwork, Housewifery, Needlework, and Cane-weaving, the lessons lasted only 35 minutes, given alternately in the garden and the building. The garden was provided with seven gravelled sites for the outdoor lessons and there was a supply of trestle tables, chairs and other outdoor furniture. Parts of the sites of the demolished houses were turned into sandhills, while the vegetation on other parts of these sites was utilised for Nature Study. Every 35 minutes the class was marched to the central place of assembly and then marched away to other work. Half the children attended in the morning session and half in the afternoon. The ten classes in each session had a roll of 37 or 38 pupils, of whom 30 or 31 were on the average present. "As soon as this number was exceeded (30 or 31) evidence began to appear of difficulty of working, and for Vacation School purposes our experience shows that 30 in attendance must be considered as the limit. For each of these classes

we provided one whole-time teacher or her equivalent—except that for the kindergarten three whole-time teachers (or their equivalent) were allowed for the roll of 75; for the Woodwork class the boys only (18 or 19 on the roll) of a normal class were deemed enough for one teacher and the girls (a like number) were deemed enough for the Cookery and Housewifery." In addition to the instructresses in Singing, Dancing and Musical Drill two accompanists were provided and in the Gymnastic class there was an instructor for the boys and an instructress for the girls. Over and above these, there was a mistress who helped generally where needed. This made a staff equivalent to sixteen whole-time teachers drawn mostly from from secondary or kindergarten training centres and schools together with some graduates. The school was organised on the mixed principle—enabling brothers and sisters to work together—"and accustomed both boys and girls to live naturally in each other's presence without excess of bashfulness on the one hand, or frivolity on the other." Work of exceptionally good quality was done, especially in Woodwork, Nature Study and Gymnastics. "The children found useful occupation pleasurable, and a number came to recognise, perhaps for the first time, the blessedness of having something to do worth doing." There can be no doubt that the Vacation School was a definite success in 1903 at this settlement and subsequent experiments have more than confirmed this success. Parents and children alike welcome the school. At the dramatic entertainment which concluded the sittings of 1904 there were present 1,050 children who had attended the school. The work of this school grows in importance each year, and the experience now gained will be of the first importance to those who start such schools in other great centres.

The secret of success was evidently associated with the number and great skill of the teachers. It is a sound educational principle that the younger and poorer the children are, the more highly trained and sympathetic the teachers must be. The school, too, supplied a definite demand. The streets of a great town are not the place for a holiday and can undo in a few weeks the work of as many years. But the Vacation School does not answer all the purposes of the French Vacation School. It does not remove the children even for a brief period from the urban environment, and therefore can do little for the physical constitution of the child. To combine the Vacation School with the Boarding-out system, or Holiday Home system, seems nearer an ideal scheme. If children could be boarded in cottage homes during the period when the country schools are in vacation and the schoolhouses could be used for Vacation Schools run on exactly the lines adopted at the Passmore Edwards Settlement, the advantages, without the obvious disadvantages of the French scheme, would be secured. Of course such an end could only be attained by the most intimate correlation of administration between rural and urban local education authorities. Cottage homes would have to be placed on a register by the rural education authorities, and a list of

such homes supplied to the urban authorities. The difficulties of machinery would be very great, and not the least of these would be the supply of teachers in rural districts during the vacation. This difficulty might in fact be found insuperable. The present system of town Vacation Schools might, however, suffice if an alternate solution of the difficulty as to the necessity of a change of environment were adopted—the drafting into cottage homes during the ordinary sessions of the rural schools of the children most in need of change in environment. These children would attend the rural schools in the ordinary course, and would in the summer attend the urban Vacation Schools. Such a scheme would have the advantage of taking back to the land the very type of child that most needs some inducement to leave the towns; but it would necessitate a higher standard of teachers and teaching than is now available in most rural districts. The experience of England and France alike proves the necessity of adopting some educational change that will give the poorest of town children the physical and moral benefits of rural life during some period of the year. The expense attending the transfer to cottage homes is of course the primary difficulty to be overcome. The children who attend the London Vacation Schools are those whose parents cannot subscribe to a holiday fund. It is probable that the case could only be met by a grant in aid. If such a grant could be secured it would be paid to the local education authority who supplied the school places and guaranteed the cottage homes. On paper such a scheme does not appear to be unworkable, and its advantages are manifest; but it would have to be worked out in very elaborate detail and on a small scale before it could be adopted. An experiment could easily enough, however, be made. It would not be difficult for the Education Committee of the London County Council to arrange such an experiment with, say, the Surrey or Hampshire County Council. If this proved successful a great step in advance would have been taken.

The evil at which this suggestion aims—the social disease of *accidie*—has been directly attacked in Manchester by an energetic voluntary committee working in conjunction with the Education Committee of that city, by the formation of a “Country School” (originally suggested in 1903 by the Rev. S. Nugent Barry) at Knoll’s Green, Knutsford. During the year 1905–6\* something like 1,200 children and teachers were sent to the school. This large number was accommodated by the addition of a camp to the school buildings. This school can only take eighty scholars at a time. The building is of corrugated iron, lined with stained and varnished wood. It is cheerful, bright, and clean, and includes a schoolroom, a dining room, two large airy dormitories, cloak room, matron and teachers’ rooms, kitchens, etc. The scheme provided that the children should, in each case, stay two weeks, and should pay for the period the

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\* Fourth Annual Report of the City of Manchester Education Committee. See also first Report of the Committee of the Knoll’s Green School and articles in the *Manchester Guardian* of July 11th, 1904, and April 30th, 1906.

sum of 7s., including the railway fare to Mobberley. The day began at half-past six, school from nine to twelve and two to four (most of the work out-door work), with a splendid dinner in between the school periods. Tea and supper followed, and bed at 8.30, with a master to read the boys to sleep. The progress made by the boys and girls (each sex alternately occupy the buildings) is remarkable in the extreme—mentally, as well as physically. The cost of starting the school was £3,000, and it is now proposed by means of a grant of £400 from the administrative sub-committee on education to increase the permanent accommodation to 120 scholars. The voluntary committee of the school are of opinion that if this is done, the school will become self-supporting. It is probable that the Country School will become a part of the municipal educational system, for "the Country School Sub-Committee has since been asked to approach the David Lewis trustees with a proposal that the existing lease of the Country School shall be cancelled, and that in lieu thereof a fresh lease for ten years be granted to the Manchester Education Committee, with the provision that at the end of such ten years the Committee shall have the option of purchasing the land (up to ten acres) at £50 per acre."

The efforts of Manchester have not been limited to this useful Country School. During the summer of 1905 twelve school playgrounds were opened to children who had only streets to play in, and were extensively used. The question of the provision of playing fields in various parts of the city for the use of the older children in the elementary schools has become important in view of the clause in the Code of Regulations issued in July, 1906, as to organised games. It is there stated that "In schools for older children a period occupied during the school hours in properly organised games under competent supervision and instruction" may be counted as school attendance. The Board of Education, in answer to an inquiry from the Playing Fields Sub-committee (July 2nd, 1906) stated that the games in question might be played outside the various school premises. The Sub-Committee therefore made a number of recommendations to the Education Committee for the purpose of securing fields (in local parks or elsewhere) where football, cricket, hockey and rounders for boys (and similar games for girls) could be organised. It was proposed that one afternoon a week should be devoted to these games under the superintendence of the teachers in the respective schools.

Experimental country school work of importance has been done during the last two years by the Fielden and the Primary Demonstration Schools associated with (though not under the control of) the Manchester University Department of Education. The Primary School and Kindergarten was established in 1902 to demonstrate methods of school training and teaching to students in the Department. The general plan of school pursuits based on Froebelian and Herbartian methods, is under the direction of Dr. J. J. Findlay, the Fielden Professor of Education. The children leave at twelve years of age to take up higher work. The Fielden Demonstration School (also under the direction of

Professor Findlay) is a school of a higher elementary type for boys between eleven and fifteen years. A "school-camp" being among the experiments contemplated by the organisers of these schools, a first attempt was made in 1906, when a party of 12 children (3 boys and 9 girls from the two schools) between the ages of eight and fourteen years were taken by one mistress and two students to the camp of the Ancoats Lads' Club, near Marple. Miss M. G. Findlay, Headmistress of the Primary School and Kindergarten, states that:—

"The tents were used for sleeping merely; meals were served out of doors when possible, and in the kitchen in wet weather. We catered for ourselves and cooked all our own food, beside doing all the laying of tables, washing-up, sweeping, and bed-making. These duties were done much more cheerfully and promptly than were the school-lessons in our second experiment, and formed a most useful discipline which none, after the first day, resented. In spite of heavy rain at night and wet grass, no one caught cold, and all returned to Manchester looking sunburnt and well. A marked effect was visible in some cases during the remaining week or two of the term—nerves were steadied, self-control greater, and a new readiness to help in practical ways was manifest. That the whole work of the following year was enriched by these experiences was clearly shown by the eager way in which they were pressed into service to illustrate lessons of every kind. The sum charged to each child (10s.) covered all expenses including the few pence of the railway fare for teachers and children, and left us with a balance of 23s. in hand."

An experiment on a larger scale was made from July 8th to July 20th, 1907. The Fielden School sent 30 boys (aged from 10 to 16 years) with three masters, and the Primary School 29 children (aged from 6 to 11 years) with six mistresses. Some Training College and Diploma Students were also present. The party was lodged at the Holiday Home, Great Hucklow, an institution belonging to the Unitarian Sunday School Association. The charge for board and lodging was 7s. 6d. for each child and 11s. for each adult. The experiment in consequence of the increased railway fare resulted in a small financial loss. On this occasion the children were "at school"—bed-making and boot-blackening being their only household work. Miss Owen states that ordinary school work was resented by the children.

"Work that greatly interested the class in school was more or less openly resented, especially at first. The children wanted to run and shout, or to pick flowers and decorate their persons, rather than to attend to nature study and geography. The nature of the ground immediately about the Home lent itself to an unusual degree to the carrying out of fairy and of adventure plays, and of these the children never tired. Boys of 14 dug for gold till the perspiration poured off them in the burning sun; little ones were goblins in the woods, or met fearsome beasts which they slew in princely fashion; but all that savoured of the schoolroom seemed out of place. Yet when we returned to ordinary work the things we saw, and the new ideas we gained at Camp, served us at every turn, and Geography and Nature-study have not failed to receive a stimulus despite apparent neglect. A little steady work was done every day, however, chiefly in the form of nature-records, diaries and home-letters. Basket-making was immensely popular towards the end and almost all the older children were able to take home their flowers in a basket of their own making. Some of the most valuable results of the experience are difficult to register. From the teacher's point of view the advantage of thus coming into close relationship with their children, in and out of school hours, can scarcely be overestimated. The social life means much to the children too, especially to those who have no big brothers or sisters to look up to at home, or no little ones to protect and care for."

An elaborate curriculum (including careful study of the fauna, flora, geology, and history of the district) has been prepared. Next year it will perhaps be possible from the experience gained to do more actual work. It is impossible not to feel that a certain amount of disorganisation must arise if school discipline is broken up during the term. Discipline is in itself a most important factor in education. Professor Findlay, in his interesting article on the experiment,\* lays emphasis on the fact that the time given to the work "is a part of school time, not of holiday time; attendance is counted just as at home. In fact, it is the day school turned for a fortnight into a boarding school, with all the advantages of intenser corporate life, self-help, independence, which are the peculiar product of good English boarding schools." Professor Findlay points out that the weeks preceding the "Camp" fortnight should be "utilised to prepare for the new life." Even on this second experiment preparation had its effect on the elder boys, and "some serious work" was done. The experience gained of country life was, moreover, all-important. "This widening experience, guided by teachers who know what appeals to the child, pays for itself a hundred times over, not only in nature-study and art, but also in geography, history, literature, song, and humanistic studies of every kind." It purifies taste as well as lungs. A parent of one of the children put the point very clearly: "The value of this country school is that my lad is learning how to enjoy the country. After he has been out here a few times he will not want to go to Blackpool and listen to nigger troupes." Professor Findlay lays stress on one very important point. The school "has been the creation of a class bond between school and home. We had to secure the goodwill of parents before they would entrust their children to us. It is a great adventure for a little boy or girl aged eight or nine to leave home, to sleep in a dormitory, with father and mother miles away!" As has been shown above, this is a real difficulty with parents who are not of the poorest class. Miss Grace Owen (an assistant lecturer and demonstrator in the University Department of Education) gives me the further information that walks and short excursions form a regular part of the school life in these two schools throughout the year. The younger children make frequent visits to two farms which are within a tram-ride of the schools, and the older children are taken out to make plans of the streets, to visit buildings of historic interest, and to see parts of the Technical School, such as the Weaving Department, etc. The Manchester Demonstration Schools will have done good work if they can make parents of all classes see the wisdom of country schools and camps, which give vent to the constructive and imaginative side of child-nature. Professor Findlay looks forward to the day when the large day schools in crowded cities will each have a permanent "camp" deep in the country. It is a goal that may well be reached.

The importance of this development of educational work in Manchester can hardly be over-rated. The necessity of some such device for dealing with physical deterioration is obvious,

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\* *Manchester Guardian* (August 19th, 1907).



and the success of a system of organised school games can hardly be doubted. The Manchester Committee have also made an experiment in connection with nature-study of an important kind. Certain public elementary schools were supplied in 1906 from the gardens at Swinton House with plants, such as lobelia, stocks, and asters, for the children to grow in their own homes. One penny was charged for each plant, and 2,497 were distributed. The children were invited to bring these plants back in September, and for each satisfactory plant a card of merit was then awarded. These plants were issued to sixteen school departments, and it was found that 583, or about 25 per cent. were successfully reared. The schools varied in their success. In one school no less than 99 plants out of 200 came to maturity.

An experiment of the Manchester School type was made in Epping Forest in 1907 by the Leipsic Road (Camberwell) Council School (boys' department). A party of 31 boys from the upper standards under the charge of the head master and one of his assistants occupied each day, for the school week beginning October 16th, the Shaftesbury Retreat (belonging to the Committee of the Fresh Air Fund), at Loughton on the edge of the Forest. Sleeping accommodation was available, as bunks were built round the walls of a large room and simple bedding provided. The sanitary and washing arrangements were quite satisfactory, and the food of excellent quality. Mr. W. J. G. Winn, H.M. Inspector of Schools, reports that "the cost of maintenance was chiefly borne by the Fresh Air Fund, but contributions were obtained from the parents of the boys wherever possible. Equipment for the boys, such as water-bottles and clothes-bags, was lent by various organisations. They went into the Forest about 9.30 a.m., and returned about 4.30 p.m. I went with one section during the morning and listened to the instruction. The boys were called on to notice different kinds of trees and flowers, the courses of streams and various considerations arising therefrom, the position of the sun, the temperature at different times of the day, differences of soil and many other miscellaneous points. They carried notebooks in which their observations were recorded. Most of them were keenly interested. I am of opinion that the undertaking was successful, and that the experience of these boys will prove a valuable basis for future teaching. Much credit is due to the headmaster, Mr. H. Kendall, for the trouble expended on the arrangements."

Another important attempt to solve the vacation problem was made at Leeds in August, 1906. A proposed Vacation School had been elaborately discussed, but it is a significant fact that when the original proposals came to be carried into practice many important modifications were found necessary. These proposals were briefly as follows:—"That the school should meet for three weeks in the August holiday, from 10 o'clock to 12 in the morning, and from 2 o'clock to 4, or 4.30 to 6.30 in the afternoon, and that the two hundred children should attend in two batches of one hundred

each morning and afternoon." The boys were to be from six to twelve years of age. The school was to be managed by six trained teachers at 20s. a week each. Each child was to pay 1d. or 2d. a week, and £50 was expected to cover all expenses. The proposed curriculum was as follows:—Nature lessons, drawing and painting, cookery, housewifery, clay modelling, sand-digging, doll-dressing, story-telling, sewing-cords, ball-making, bead-threading, kindergarten brick-building, songs, games, and dancing. The children were also to be taken by tram-car to the parks for open-air games.

The wisdom of the Leeds Education Committee and private benevolence caused this scheme to be modified. The committee placed at the disposal of the scheme a much better school than was anticipated—the Victoria Council School—an admirably fitted building on high ground, in good surroundings, near the public recreation ground. The children chosen were those "whose homes had least to offer them in the holidays," and careful visiting of the homes preceded the selection of children. The age of the children was from seven years without any fixed higher limit, which, in fact, reached thirteen years. A very attractive letter of invitation was sent to children from fifteen schools—namely, to 57 boys and 63 girls from Council Schools, 30 boys and 37 girls from National Schools, and 15 boys and 5 girls from Roman Catholic Schools—in all 102 boys and 105 girls. In order to secure the children who most needed the holiday, lists were examined by the school committee in conjunction with the attendance officers, and the final list from each school was settled by the head teachers. Two principles in the details of selection were followed. The younger children were taken from among children who lived near the Victoria School, and brothers and sisters were kept together where it was possible. Experience shows that too large a range of schools was chosen for selection. Much disappointment and work was involved in selecting 207 children from 15 schools. The proposed payment by the children was abandoned except one penny a week for tram fares. The generosity of Dr. W. Hall in providing a free meal for the children daily involved an important modification in the scheme. It was, in view of the meal impossible for the children to attend in two batches. "It was decided to have a mid-day meal for the children, and to open the school to the whole 200 together from 11 to 3 o'clock." This, of course, was a convenience to the staff, but it also necessitated an increase. Eight teachers at £2 a week were necessary for the work—(five mistresses, including a Cookery and Laundress instructress, and three masters, of whom two were Woodwork instructors)—in addition to Miss Haselden Brettell and Miss Rhoda Haselden Brettell, who, with special London experience in settlement work, superintended the whole scheme. Mr. Cooper, the Headmaster of the Victoria School, gave special help in the way of supplying time tables and advice as to division into classes, and drawing up lists of necessary apparatus. Experience shows that in these holiday schools, success depends on intimate exactitude in matters of detail. The Education

Committee allowed gas, coal, and school stores to be used, and these stores were generously supplemented by a local firm. Gifts of 50 dolls to dress, with packets of stuffs and kindergarten material were also given. Local interest, in fact, contributed largely to the success of the school.

It is very important to notice the actual working of the school, as it is only by experiment that these schools can be made really efficient. The school, when it opened at 11 o'clock on Monday, July 29th, was brightly decorated with flowers. The boys were on one side of the hall and the girls on the other. After an opening hymn and prayer and an explanation of the objects of the school, the children were marched to the class-rooms, in sets of 25 according to age and sex, with one teacher for each set. It was found that the attendance in the older sets was not quite equal to that in the younger sets.

"But this was an advantage in some respects, as the Cookery, Laundry, and Woodwork teachers, who only had children over ten years old, were not able to deal satisfactorily with quite so many as twenty-five in a set. In appointing teachers the Committee had allowed one paid teacher to each set of twenty-five . . . . Two teachers, or a teacher and a voluntary helper, to each set of twenty-five are really required to do the work satisfactorily. The Committee was fortunate in its staff of teachers, many of whom were enthusiasts in their own subjects, but if additional teachers could have been appointed it would have been better, and they should have included specialists in drawing and nature study for the older children."

This practical note is very important. It will be noticed that experience here does not coincide with experience in the case of Mrs. Humphry Ward's Vacation School. There it was found that one whole-time teacher could take 30 to 31 children. The difference is noticeable, and is to my mind explainable by the fact that London children are duller, less troublesome, and more susceptible to routine discipline than children in smaller towns. *Accidie* is more deadly in London than anywhere else.

The original curriculum at the Leeds Vacation School for the most part stood the test of experience. Housewifery and dancing were deleted—"on the whole dancing is not appropriate to the August holidays"—while Swedish drill, Woodwork, and Laundry work were added with great success.

The Report on the school contains a significant note on the *kind* of teaching necessary in Vacation Schools—a note that is a severe but familiar commentary on current methods of teaching in county and borough schools. "This kind of teaching is very different from ordinary class work. It gives great opportunities to an energetic and original teacher, because the aim is not to obtain definite results, such as could be tested by examination, but rather to draw out the children's powers and interest them at the moment—to make the most of the present rather than to lay foundations for the future. It may be an experience of great value to the teacher, especially to the conscientious teacher who is inclined to sacrifice everything to the orderly working out of his method."

A good deal of time was spent out of doors by the children, and was occupied in games, excursions, and garden parties. On the last working day the school was thrown open to visitors, who saw the classes at work and the objects made by the children, such as baskets, dressed dolls, brush work, knitted articles, and some ingenious wooden toys, made in the workshop.

The school seems to have been most successful. As a result of the course and the meals (we are told that the children took kindly to brown bread and milk), the scholars improved in cleanliness and general appearance during the three weeks. They greatly enjoyed themselves, and there was no difficulty in getting them to attend. There was some doubt as to whether the result was unsettling for the next term's work. The teachers were of opinion that it was not unsettling. If it tended to unsettle the system of teaching for "results" indicated above the fact need not be deplored. The total cost of the course was about £60, or, say, six shillings per pupil. This sum was expended on teachers and tram fares. The children contributed £1 12s. 0d., or about two-thirds of the sum asked from them. Girls contributed more regularly than boys. The cost worked out at about three shillings per week per child, in addition to the wear and tear of school premises, the cost of coal and gas, the provision of apparatus and material and, of course, the provision of the free meals. This experiment was on a much smaller scale than that promoted by Mrs. Humphry Ward, and was different in many ways—especially in the provision of free meals—but it is probable (apart from the question of meals), that the out-of-pocket costs were much the same. There seems every reason why these experiments should be repeated in the various great centres of industry, including, if voluntary subscriptions can be raised, the provision of the mid-day meal. On the whole it seems better to have the whole school sitting together than to have two separate schools in the morning and afternoon. A single sitting is indeed essential if there is to be a meal, and it is probable that the supply of meals would not be impossible, even in London. Meals for which pupils pay are now supplied without difficulty at some very large secondary endowed schools (as, for instance, the Roan School for Girls at Greenwich), and the simpler free meals contemplated could be arranged with very little difficulty if the funds were forthcoming. The children might indeed be asked to pay something towards these meals. Experience shows that 1½d. or 2d. a head will suffice for an ample meal where there is no rent to be paid for the dining room, and even very poor parents would in most instances contribute 1d. Voluntary contributions would have to make up the deficit.

The Leeds experiment was repeated in 1907, but the centre itself was moved out to Cross Flats. Each of the two hundred poor children who attended had to walk at least three-quarters of a mile, and many of them arrived before the school opened at 11 a.m. and lingered after it closed at 3 p.m. The school buildings which are occupied in term time by a well-to-do class of children, are practically in the country. They adjoin a public park (a

portion of which, large enough for several games of cricket as well as other games to be played at the same time, is set apart for children) and beyond the park are fields and farms, where the children are welcome to wander. Occasionally the farmers were kind enough to give milk to parties of the children, and as certain Leeds shopkeepers also gave for the use of the children, or sold at a very low rate, bags of cakes, country picnics were possible. Each day soon after noon the children were given a meal "consisting chiefly of brown bread and nut butter and a banana and plum cake." Grated cheese and grated nuts were sometimes added. Miss Elizabeth Oakeshott, the honorary secretary of the Centre, also tells us that "a part of every day was spent out of doors. The children were in the playground for half an hour after dinner, and later on played games or went for a short walk, coming back with their arms full of wild flowers. It is almost incredible what a large amount of work had been done when the school came to an end, considering how much time had been spent out of doors. Dolls had been dressed, baskets made, high-flyers, photograph frames, tea-pot stands, bread and plain cakes, and I think the work had been enjoyed as much as the play. We were fortunate in finding an excellent Director and Staff for the school."

The Walworth Holiday School, started in July, 1904, for the poor children of Southwark, shows us a modification of the methods of the Passmore Edwards Settlement School. It was organised by the Browning Settlement. A circular, stating the facts as to the proposed school and the need of personal service or of help in the way of money or goods, was issued by Miss Ethel Lancaster, of 3, Sutherland Street, Walworth, S.E. The teachers in the local schools were asked to select the poorest children who would not get a country holiday that year. Seven hundred names were sent in, of these three hundred were selected, and Miss Lancaster sent to the fortunate children cards of invitation and admission. The London County Council granted for the purposes of the school the King and Queen Street Schools and made a special reduction of the tram fares to Tooting Common. The Southwark Borough Council admitted the children to the Newington Baths at specially reduced rates. The Holiday School was open 16 days in 4 weeks from July 25th to August 17th. All the teachers were volunteers. There were 19 occasional and 9 regular helpers.

"There were classes in the mornings in musical drill, games, clay modelling, drawing and painting, singing, stencil-cutting and story-telling. In the afternoons 577 visits were paid to the Newington Baths for lessons in bathing and swimming, and 1,050 visits were paid by tram to Tooting Common, six miles away, where the rudiments of Nature-study were implanted. The daily average attendance of the children was 231. The numbers could easily have been trebled had the requisite staff of teachers been forthcoming. Up to the last the children excluded were clamorous to be admitted. The improvement in the appearance of the scholars during the sixteen days was very marked in cleanliness, tidiness, and interest in the School. A very large number of the children had never been in either bath

or tramcar or in a park before. They were loud in their expressions of appreciation of the School, and the enthusiasm of their devotion to the teachers was touching to witness. Thanks to the entirely honorary nature of the help given by teachers, the total cost of the School was £30 11s. 2d., which was met by voluntary subscriptions. This figure works out almost exactly at an average cost per head of 2d. per day, 8d. per week, 2s. 8d. per four weeks." The success of the Browning Settlement School at such a cost is remarkable. It shows what can be done in the poorest neighbourhoods with very small means. The original experiment in 1902 at the Passmore Edwards Settlement, in Tavistock Place, led, however, to various other experiments beside the schools at Manchester, Leeds, and Walworth. "At Woolwich a very successful school was started, to which the London County Council lent school furniture, allowing the organisers to buy materials for the various classes at cost price. The numbers were limited to 240. At Stratford, E., a Vacation School was opened in buildings provided by the West Ham Town Council, consisting of a pupil teacher's centre, with a manual training centre, and a large garden. Great use was made of the lantern to illustrate talks about plants and animals, and biographies of great men."\*

The weighty memorial to the London County Council, from which this quotation is taken, was not without its effect. The Education Committee of the Council reported in June, 1905, to the Council† that they were advised that Vacation Schools could not be carried on or supported in any way by the Council under its powers relating to elementary education. But by the joint operation of Sections 2 and 22 (3) of the Education Act, 1902, it could carry out the suggestions of the memorialists. The Committee also reported that the then period was inopportune for a grant, but that they recommended the giving of facilities for such schools in twelve County School buildings. The Report laid down the very necessary principle that no teacher permanently employed in any of the schools for the maintenance of which the Council is responsible, should be permitted to teach during his or her holiday, unless an arrangement were made for such teacher to receive a compensatory holiday for the time given in such school, the salary of a teacher "on supply," during such compensatory holiday being paid by the Voluntary Association organising the Vacation School. The Report went on to suggest that in recognition of the facilities afforded by the Council, the Council should be entitled to ask of any Association desiring to take advantage of these facilities, that the subjects to be taught should include—manual training, needle-work, Nature-study, gymnastic and musical drill, kindergarten, games, drawing and brush work, stories from history or mythology, fairy tales, singing, dancing, clay modelling, and use

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\* *The Times*, March 23rd, 1905, Memorial to the London County Council in favour of Vacation Schools.

† *The Times*, June 13th, 1905.

of libraries; and that they should be asked to make great use of school play-grounds, of neighbouring parks, of organised excursions to open spaces in the neighbourhood of London, to museums and other places of educational interest. Mrs. Humphry Ward, in a letter to *The Times* of July 31st, 1905, drew attention to this Report, and stated that in the Vacation School (organised by the Passmore Edwards Settlement) then about to be re-opened, there would be 1,000 children enrolled at the opening, out of 1,550 applicants—500 in the morning, from 10.0 to 12.30; and 500 in the evening from 5.0 to 7.30. There would be 18 or 20 teachers under the capable head-master, Mr. E. G. Holland, who had had charge of the school from the beginning (1902). The cost of each child would be from 1s. 3d. to 1s. 9d. per week—5s. to 7s. per head for the whole period of four weeks. The Bishop of Hereford (Dr. Percival) in a letter to *The Times* of August 5th, 1905, criticised the cost of this school in view of the experience of the Vacation School at Hereford. "In Hereford it has been proved by the experience of two successive years, that such a school can be conducted in a thoroughly attractive and efficient manner at a cost of 8d. per week, for each child attending four mornings in the week, or at about half the cost of the London School. In 1903 we had 512 children in regular daily attendance, and the total cost for three weeks was £50, or rather less than 2s. for each child." The low cost was secured by drawing up an interesting curriculum and advertising for teachers "who were glad to spend three or four weeks of their holiday in Hereford, and to earn a little money by teaching their favourite subject for about eight hours each week." Mrs. Ward's reply\* showed that in fact (if the schools had been open the same number of hours) the Hereford school would have cost £2 1s. 3d. per hour for 500 children, while the London school costs £2 14s. for the same number—a comparatively small difference. She went on to plead for the public control and support of Vacation Schools as the only method of dealing with half a million of children, and urged that the teaching method suggested by the Education Committee of the London County Council, in the Report of March, 1905, would supply a considerable amount of the teaching power, practically at no extra expense to the public.

It is desirable to make some fuller reference to The Hereford Holiday School of 1903, which was opened on the advice of the Bishop of Hereford. "The object of the Holiday School was to provide pleasant recreative instruction (no bookwork) for boys and girls, as a counter-attraction to the streets, during a part of the summer vacation . . . . The summer holidays cater, to a large extent, for the hop-pickers, and extend six weeks, although the first half of those weeks is spent by many children in the streets." The Scudamore Schools were selected for the school, and the head master, Mr. J. W. Rider, was appointed by the Local Education Authority Organiser, with a free hand

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\* *The Times*, August 8th, 1905.

subject to the cost not exceeding £50. "Arrangements were made for opening the Holiday School, and providing instruction for 200 boys and 200 girls over seven years of age." In fact, "the number of children was so large, that an alternative scheme was introduced. The younger boys came on alternate mornings. Every Elementary School in the city of Hereford was represented on the roll of the Holiday School." The numbers enrolled were:—Boys, 461; Girls, 382; total, 843. The average attendance was:—Boys, 255; Girls, 257; total, 512. This average would have been nearer 600 but for the plan of making the younger boys attend on alternate mornings.

The following notes as to the staff and curriculum indicate the character of the work done:—

*Organiser—*

- (1) Mr. J. W. Rider, Headmaster, Scudamore School, Hereford.

*Colour work and singing (Boys)—*

- (2) Mr. C. Challis, Head-master, Salter's Lode School, Norfolk.
- (3) Mr. T. Parker, Assistant-master, Scudamore School, Hereford.

*Experimental Science—*

- (4) Mr. Leslie Scott, Inter: B.Sc., Science master at an Intermediate School in Anglesey.

*Nature Study and Lantern lectures—*

- (5) Mr. T. Williams, Head-master, St. Martin's School, Hereford.

*Gardening—*

- (6) Mr. J. Yeates: Professional Gardener.

*Games—*

- (7) Mr. A. Brookes, Instructor in Cricket, and three Monitors.

*Nature Study, Colour Drawing, and Fancy work—*

- (8) Miss Rodway Barnes, Grammar School for Girls, Worcester.

*Singing and Colour work (Girls)—*

- (9) Miss Margaret Brearley, Head-mistress, under Walthamstow School Board.

*Games, Fancy work, Colour work—*

- (10) Miss Gertrude Brearley, Head-mistress of Country School near Walthamstow.
- (11) Miss B. Rowberry, Assistant-mistress, S. James' School, Hereford, and six Monitresses.

The school opened on Monday, August 17th, for three weeks, meeting on Mondays, Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Fridays from 10-12. Wednesday is market day in Hereford. The boys undertook colour drawing of common objects (*i.e.*, a yacht) and simple designs. Boys who had colour boxes worked at flower painting. The girls did simple designs, and colour drawing from nature (such as clematis spray, ivy-leaves) for bigger girls. This subject was *unusual* and very popular. Songs were taught by ear. "Tunes were played and afterwards accompanied by the piccolo." Rambles proved very attractive. The elder girls brought specimens back to school and pressed them between blotting paper, and in the third week mounted them in books and named them. The younger children were merely taught the names of the flowers that they gathered. Artificial flower-making was undertaken by the IVth Standard girls, who made



poppies, daffodils, and sweet peas. The flowers when finished were taken home by the children. Crochet work and crewel work had a great fascination for the elder girls. Visits were made to places of interest. Two batches of boys visited the Corporation Gas and Electrical Works and Sewage Farm, where the works and the processes were explained. The *Hereford Times* Printing Works were also visited. The manager showed the working of the Linotype machine, and how a large weekly paper is produced. At the Herefordshire County Council experimental fruit farm the County Council lecturer gave lessons on grafting and budding fruit trees. There were also visits by the junior boys to the Museum. The senior girls visited the Cathedral twice, conducted by the Dean of Hereford and were taken over the Bishop's Palace by the Chaplain. All girls visited the King's Acre Nurseries with the extensive gardens and conservatories, while the junior girls paid two visits to the Museum. Children in regular attendance were allowed to enter for the sports on two afternoons in the last week, when 200 prizes were offered by the Hereford tradespeople for walking matches, running and cricket competitions, among the boys, for skipping, tug-of-war, and other contests among the girls. To all children making a perfect attendance a special certificate was given. No less than 265 such certificates (123 to boys, 142 to girls) were awarded. In fact, half of the children in average attendance made a perfect attendance.

The religious instruction was undertaken by two local ministers of the Church of England and one Nonconformist minister. "Short prayers, Bible stories, and simple lessons for every-day life were given each morning and lasted fifteen minutes. On fine mornings the religious opening of the school took place in the play-ground."

"The discipline was excellent in every respect, due chiefly to the skill and enthusiasm of the teachers. The children were kept constantly employed, and had no time for talking or inattention. Considering that children from every school in the city were enrolled, it was very satisfactory that no 'scenes' occurred after school between scholars from different schools. This is evidence of the good fellowship which prevailed."

It is of course very difficult to compare schools and scholars in London and Hereford, or any other provincial town. Experiments must be based on a wise choice of the material supplied by earlier experiments. The higher rate of average attendance in London seems additional evidence that the London child does not know what to do with himself or herself in the vacation, and gladly seeks light and leading if offered. There are, in fact, more attractions to interest the mind of a child in the country, despite the usual opinion as to the variety of interests available in town life.

Mrs. Ward, in an article in the "Commonwealth" for October, 1905, dwelt further on the value of the work done in Vacation Schools, with special reference to the Tavistock Place Vacation School. The singing and dramatic class "did wonders in the

hands of an experienced and ingenious teacher." Nature-study, drawing and clay modelling and kindergarten were all equally successful. This article was written after the school for 1905 had closed, and the results are given. Perhaps it should be explained that the average daily attendance of 930 was divided into two schools, the "White" and the "Blue," the White attending in the morning and the Blue in the evening, and *vice versa* week by week. Each school opened with a hymn, the Lord's Prayer, and the Beatitudes. The staff consisted of the Director, the teachers, and three accompanists, and the sum spent on salaries during the four weeks amounted to £226 6s. 0d. The total expenditure works out at about 1s. 6d. per child per week, a little more than last year; but a special sum was spent on drawing in order to test the Philadelphia system, and we shall have a larger amount of stores left over for next year than was the case on the last occasion. The amount spent in materials, were the whole amount charged to this year, would come to 8d. per child per month."

The Vacation School has not yet taken any very noticeable place out of London. I have already mentioned the Leeds School and the Hereford School. Some references must be made to the Vacation School held at Sheffield in 1906.\* Mrs. Humphry Ward visited Sheffield in May, 1906, and suggested the formation of a school on the model of the Tavistock Place School. Miss Barron, a certificated kindergarten mistress on the staff of the Sheffield Girls' High School, was chosen as the superintendent of the school formed in consequence of this suggestion. Despite her want of previous experience in this kind of work the school was a complete success. "A list of children in the immediate neighbourhood (of the Croft House settlement, where the school was held) was made up, drawn from those in attendance at the day schools, the Sunday schools, and various institutions associated with the Settlement. These were visited personally, names were filled in of those who accepted, the forms being left to be brought as the "open sesame," whilst a duplicate was retained for registration. Four classes were formed—a girls' major and minor and a boys' major and minor, the minors being from four to seven years of age, and the majors from seven to eleven. These were taught by the same teacher for the whole of the time, the two ladies being certificated (Froebel) mistresses, whilst one of the men is an assistant master in a boys' private school. The children assembled every morning in the gymnasium, and after the singing of a well-known hymn, such as "Onward, Christian Soldiers" and the repetition of the Lord's Prayer, were drafted to their respective class-rooms, whilst a march was being played on the piano. For the first half-hour a story was told in each class, for the second there was some kindergarten occupation, for the third there was another occupation for the seniors, whilst the juniors went to their games, and *vice versa* for the last half-hour.

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\* See "The British Congregationalist," September 6th, 1906.

The occupations comprised clay modelling, graphic representation, crayoning, paper-folding, bead-work, cake-work, brush-work, wood-work, etc., and called forth some really remarkable specimens of originality and skill." The games "consisted of a sand heap, with spades and buckets placed in an adjoining yard, rocking horses lent by friends, skipping ropes, balls, nine pins, puzzles, etc." The attendance on the last morning was 170, which was 40 in excess of the limit.

The lesson to be drawn from the scanty available material seems to me to be the need of concerted action between the Board of Education, the local education authorities and voluntary associations in order to secure a rapid multiplication of Vacation Schools in crowded areas. Regulations for such schools might well be issued and some regular system of organisation and inspection instituted. Such regulations could also deal with Holiday Country Schools and School Journeys so as to correlate these new branches of a national system.

#### IV. COUNTRY SCHOOLS FOR BACKWARD TOWN CHILDREN.

It is at this point that I must say something of the "Open Air School" held at Osea Island, in the estuary of the Blackwater on the Essex coast, not far from Maldon, in June and July, 1906. "The Homerton Residential School for Deaf Children is set apart by the London County Council for the reception of children who, in addition to being *deaf*, are also mentally and physically weak, and on that account require special care and treatment from the educational, medical, or domestic point of view."\* It was decided early in 1906 "to transfer the whole of the Homerton School, consisting of 46 residential and 24 day scholars, the teachers and domestic staff, from the dingy surroundings of Homerton to the green fields, blue skies, and breezy beach of Osea Island." Of these 70 children "some are entirely deaf and dumb, and so defective that after several years of patient trial, they have been found to make little or no progress by the methods employed in the ordinary deaf schools; some are partially deaf and suffer from defective speech, coupled with aphasia, word-blindness, and defects of a similar nature; some are blind; some partially blind, and practically every child presents a little psychological problem of its own. The object of the proposal to transfer the children was to try the experiment of living in the open air, amid beautiful surroundings, with open-air lessons, to generally increase the interests and intelligence of the children by combining the delights of novel and pleasureable surroundings with the advantages of physical exercises, sea-bathing, and a constant supply of health-giving ozone."

Osea Island, a mile from the coast at high water, but accessible by cart at low water, is just the spot for such an experiment. "There are four miles of clean shingly beach, surrounding the green fields of a well cultivated farm, and a closer acquaintance

\* See "Child-life," October, 1906, pp. 197-202, for the full details of this experiment.

with its shady nooks, its profusion of wild flowers, the teeming varieties of animal and plant life, in addition to the pervading peace and quietness, only serve to increase the attractiveness of the place."

The question before the promoters was to find funds for a scheme which deserved the approval that it found. The island possesses a "camp" that can be hired "consisting of five good huts, each containing sixteen bunks with a splendid supply of clean bedding, a dining hall capable of seating about two hundred people, good cooking and sanitary accommodation, and a plentiful supply of water from an artesian well." The money available was a grant of £20 from the London County Council and voluntary subscriptions from parents and others amounting to £50. The camp accommodation costs 6s. a month for each child. The accommodation and maintenance of 24 children (day scholars at Homerton) fell entirely on the voluntary fund, as well as all expenses (such as transport) that were incurred in the expedition. The Council, of course, paid for the maintenance of those children (46) who were maintained at Homerton. But we may take it that the whole cost of accommodation (£21) fell on the Fund. The sum raised (£70) paid for all these additional expenses, so that at an average cost of £1 per head seventy children obtained their school by the sea. It is difficult to estimate the exact figures, but it would appear, roughly, that if all the children had been day children and therefore all maintainable out of voluntary fund, the school could have been kept going at a cost under 10s. per week per head for all expenses. The results of the "Open Air School" were valuable beyond all comparison with the minute cost. The fact that the weather was almost continuously fine no doubt was responsible for some of the gain, but the good results were mainly due to the entire change of environment and the skill with which the School was conducted. The daily routine was as follows:—

- 6.30. Rise, clear up sleeping huts, wash, etc.
- 7.30. General parade for marching, running, or physical exercises.
- 8. 0. Breakfast.
- 8.30. Washing up, making beds, clear up the camp generally.
- 9. 0. Parade for breathing exercises before school.
- 9.15. School lessons in the open air (language).
- 10.30. Bathing, or drill, or recess.
- 11.15. School work (arithmetic).
- 12. 0. Recreation, lay dinner.
- 12.30. Dinner.
- 1.15. Clear up, washing up, etc.
- 2. 0. School work.
- 3. 0. Observation walks, wading (or bathing).
- 4. 0. Staff tea.
- 5. 0. Tea for teachers and children, evening organised games.
- 8. 0. Supper and bed.

The peculiar difficulties of out-door classes were carefully met. The children had "blocks" with stiff backs, instead of copy books, and black card-board sheets and wall sheets were affixed to a tree or wall for blackboard purposes. The system of "Mixed" classes was not adopted so that re-classification was

unnecessary when the turn for bathing and wading arrived. The school was divided for teaching purposes into six groups, five of which were taught in "some shady spot either on the farm, in the fields, or on the beach." The remaining group of little ones (including a blind-deaf child) had their lessons, interspersed with plenty of play, in the camp quadrangle. Botany lessons were very frequent and each child gathered its own specimens. The lesson was nearly always taken from the environments. For instance, take the following case: "a plunge through a narrow path overhung with thick foliage brings us to a cosy corner, where we find another class seated on a sort of natural gallery facing the sea. More than a mile away the mainland is almost lost in the warm haze, and the lapping of the tiny waves on the bright clean shingle gives this class room a delicious coolness, even on a hot day. Again the lesson will be found to take its origin from the surroundings, the names of the varying objects of the sea and shore, with some simple language appropriate to the subject and the intellectual capacity of the child being given by the teacher, written on the blocks, and accompanied by sketches of varying degrees of merit."

Bathing and paddling followed the morning "language" lesson, and then followed other classes before dinner. In the afternoon, the lessons were shorter and included drawing and needlework. "Part of the time, at least, was given to a ramble through the fields or to exploring some of the never-ending wonders of the beach." There were evening romps, and by 8.30 p.m. the children were "all snugly tucked into the comfortable bunks in their respective huts. The doors and windows of the huts were generally kept wide open both night and day; so that the children practically slept as well as played and worked in the open air the whole time they were away." All Saturday was spent in recreation, and "the whole life of the island was so full of interest that not the least trace of weariness was ever shewn by the children." The farm was an endless joy. Indeed the experiment was an absolute success. "Even the dullest and most apathetic of the children showed a little keenness about the doings of the animals, the rising and falling of the tide, and the movements of the boats as they passed, and one most defective child, whose power of expression was limited almost entirely to 'signs,' volunteered the remark to his teacher one day, when he had grasped some new fact hitherto undreamt of in his philosophy, that 'there are many, many *new* things, here in Osea.'" In this exclamation we have the greatest tribute to the success of the experiment. The dumb spake. I must make one final quotation from the charming report which seems to me to indicate the spirit in which the experiment was undertaken and the cause of its success!

"Sunday was usually one of the most delightful days of the week, as one did not in the least object to a complete rest after the week of constant activity in some shape or other. There

being no church, service consisting of a little Scripture narrative and the lessons to be deduced from it, some children's hymns, and prayers, suited to the capacity of the children, was taken morning and evening either in the fields or on the shore. Perhaps the most touching incident in this connection happened at evening service on the first Sunday at Osea, when Baring-Gould's hymn, 'Now the day is over' was being spelled out to the children. When it came to the couplet—

'Birds and beasts and flowers,  
Soon will be asleep.'

the master told one of the boys to find a daisy. The flower was brought, and the children were shown that it had closed its eye and gone to sleep. The whole of the little congregation was over-awed in the presence of the little sleeping flower, and the wonder on their faces was a study."

Certainly, the Osea experiment is to be recommended to other schools, residential or day schools.\* As the writer of the Report points out, "there are plenty of volunteer camps scattered up and down the length and breadth of the land lying idle for the greater part of each year, which could be easily adapted for such a purpose. I should not recommend 'canvas' for children, though it is delightful for the adults of the party, and several of our lady teachers slept out the whole time, including two bad stormy nights we experienced. But the officers' messes, and wooden canteens standing at such places as Conway, etc., would serve such a purpose admirably." It may be added that the various hulks round the coast would also serve perfectly for the purpose of housing the children, and have, I believe, on various occasions been used in that way. The cost of providing food in the case of day schools could, as the writer of the Osea Report points out, "only be met by some such arrangement as that in connection with the 'Children's Holiday Fund,' into which the children pay a little weekly throughout the year, and the amount is supplemented by donations and subscriptions. We were fortunate in having very low contracts for our food, and were able to take a month's supply of dry goods with us. The provisions were got locally, cheaply, and the meat came down from London, also cheaply and in good condition."

The open air School at Bostall Woods, Plumstead, for 100 anaemic or otherwise unhealthy children is, I believe, the first school of this type organised by an English Local Education Authority. The beautiful wooded grounds, 20 acres in extent, were lent for the purpose of the School by the Royal Arsenal Co-operative Society, Ltd. The cost of organisation, £400, and a further sum of £400 for maintenance, was met by the London County Council. The school was opened on July 22nd and remained open till the middle of October, 1907. It was attended

\* "Camp" schools for normal children have been dealt with above in the section dealing with work in Manchester. It has been suggested by Professor Findlay that there should be a permanent "camp" school affiliated to each school in thickly populated neighbourhoods. If this were secured every child would get a country holiday in the course of the year.

from 9.0 a.m. to 7.0 p.m. each week day except Saturday, when the hours were 9.0 a.m. to 1.0 p.m., by children from Woolwich, Greenwich and Deptford, selected by the Medical Officer with the consent of the parents.

It will be found useful to compare these open air schools with a similar attempt made in Germany to help sickly children. I refer to the Charlottenburg Forest School.\* In the summer of 1904, the Charlottenburg Town Council established as an experiment in the forest of Westend, in the neighbourhood of the Castle of Ruwald, a "Forest School," as a place of daily recreation for children who are sickly, but still capable of instruction and sufficiently healthy to serve pedagogic purposes. On the estate there were school buildings, baths, and wash-houses, and a hall, open to the weather on one side, with wooden floor and overhanging roof. The school barrack is a balustraded building containing two class rooms, two smaller rooms for the teacher, and a common entrance hall. The rooms are well lit and ventilated. The class rooms are fitted with tables and chairs in different parts of the rooms, suitable to the various grades of children. The school is open to children of all creeds, and is intended to take 100 to 120 children. It was opened on April 1st, 1904, with 95 children. On August 16th (when the summer school vacation began) there were 104 children, and by September 15th the number had risen to 120. The selection of the children is made on the recommendation of the school doctor. The choice falls upon children who show early symptoms of heart, lung, or similar organic complaints, in the shape of green sickness, anæmia, or general weakness, without the children being incompetent for instruction or entirely bed-ridden. Children, convalescent after acute sickness, are also eligible, but no case of infectious illness or of tuberculosis is admitted within the school. The children who are admitted are of course continually under the eye of the school doctor. As far as possible the children spend their time in the open air, and take their meals and spend the break in the middle of the day on invalid chairs, of which every child has one as well as a woollen rug. The school is divided into six classes, which correspond to the six higher classes of the seven-class Charlottenburg Municipal School. The School is too far off to allow children of the first year (the seventh class) to join. In each class there is on the average twenty scholars. There must not be more than 25 save in exceptional circumstances. Boys and girls are taught together except in the giving of gymnastics.

The school has been a great success, and of extraordinary benefit to sick and languishing children. The children are brought each day to school, under sound medical and hygienic appliances and surroundings. The fresh air, the irradiation of sunlight, the giving of salt baths, the careful restriction of the amount of instruction given, and the number of scholars taught, have had the most beneficial effect. The

\* See *Centralblatt für das gesamte Unterrichtswesen in Preussen*, Oct., 1905.

feeding of the children costs the Institution about sixpence (50 Pf.) a head. It is good and ample. The children, on their arrival, between seven and eight in the morning (and again at ten o'clock), receive about half-a-pint ( $\frac{1}{2}$  litre) of milk, with bread, and at noon have a little over three ounces (100 grammes) of meat, with a "plentiful supply of vegetables." At four in the afternoon they again have half-a-pint of milk with preserved fruit; and in the evening, before returning to the town, warm soup, bread and butter. A week in the woods has extraordinarily favourable results. The children are bright, merry, and attentive; and their appetites become keen. It is found that after ten to twelve weeks the sick children have become strong and healthy. The school (including fifteen children who had recently joined) showed after the period an average increase in weight of  $5\frac{1}{2}$  lbs. Eleven children had increased 10 lbs., or thereabouts in weight, and two children 14 and 16 lbs. respectively.

The Charlottenburg Forest School was so notable a success that in 1906 the Kultusminister, on the special instructions of the Emperor, issued a circular advocating the multiplication of schools of the same type, and inviting reference to his department on any point relating to the question. On May 28th, 1906, the Gladbach School was opened for fifty children. The building comprised a class room, a small room for the teachers, a large covered hall, and a cellar for storing materials not in use. Thirty yards from the main building was a small building containing the lavatories and *necessaria*. The large class room was completely furnished for school purposes. On the walls were hung pictures from fairy stories. The bulk of the instruction was, however, given out-of-doors, and all the gymnastic apparatus was kept out-of-doors. It was proposed that school work should be limited to two hours a day, that the children should be chosen by school doctors in the town of Gladbach, that their school work should be inspected by the usual school inspectors, and their health watched by the doctors at a neighbouring convalescent home. It was estimated that the cost *per diem* (including the journey to school) would be 50 pf (sixpence). The school opened with thirty-eight children. It aimed at taking children in weak health suffering from anæmia, headaches and scrofula and mild cases of eczema, lung and heart trouble. Tubercular and serious heart and lung cases and cases of an offensive character are excluded, but are for the most part treated in the *Ferien Colonien*. The children remain for periods varying from four months to less than one month. The time is, unfortunately, as Dr. Grau fully realises, dependent rather upon funds than necessity. The results, however, are very striking, and it is found that body and mind advance together. If the children are there in school

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See *Zur Eröffnung der Waldschule der Stadt M.-Gladbach*, von Dr. Schaefer, Direktor der Heilstätte M.-Gladbach (Bonn, 1906); *Ergebnisse und Bedeutung der Waldschule*, von Dr. H. Grau, II. Arzt der Heilstätte M.-Gladbach (Bonn, 1906).



vacation no school work is done. At other times the curriculum consists of religious instruction, German, arithmetic, history, singing, Nature-study, and gymnastics. In the course of the week eight lessons of a half-hour each are given in German, six lessons in arithmetic (for this work the school, which is normally divided into two classes, is sub-divided into six classes), and two lessons each in religious instruction, history, gymnastics, singing, and Nature-study. Between each lesson there is a quarter of an hour for recreation. Dr. Grau insists that more time should be devoted to Nature-study, which he declares is supremely important and cannot be taught properly in towns, where the children are most ignorant as to natural phenomena. He also declares that gymnastics are necessary, and should be combined (in the case of children who have been carefully selected with a view to heart trouble) with ordinary games. Dr. Grau points out that girls are fond of gymnastics and should in *all* schools receive a gymnastic training. All teachers should be able to give instruction in gymnastics, and should understand how to vary the instruction to the needs of each particular child. There should be no hard and fast rules of instruction. The Gladbach School has had the most gratifying results in its effect on the mental and bodily health of the children. Despite the fact that some children were able to stay for quite a short period, the average weight increased was from one to two kilogrammes. It was found that scrofulous children rapidly improved in health, and that such cases received benefit from the "sool-bath." Although the time, was often too short for complete cure, everything was done to induce health. The school day began at 8.45 a.m., and four classes were held, lasting with the intervals till 11.30 a.m. Play and meals followed. From 1.0 p.m. to 3.0 p.m. the children lay down to rest, and it was found that most of them enjoyed refreshing sleep during this time. Hygienic instruction, including the cleaning of nails and teeth, was given to all the children with good results. There is every probability that this movement will spread throughout Germany, especially as the cost is low. The Gladbach School cost (apart from site) in capital expenditure 16,200 marks (£810). The school opened with thirty-eight children, and the whole attendance in the year was 118 children, with an average attendance of forty. The daily cost was 60 marks (£3), of which 10 marks was due to the daily transit of children from and to home. This cost was partly borne by the parents and partly by what we should call here the Poor Law authorities. There is a yearly deficit, but in all cases it is small. The sense of the necessity for such schools is growing. On 28th July, 1906, a circular was issued by the Dusseldorf Education Authority urging an increase in their number. Cologne, Aachen, Dusseldorf, Barmen, Elberfeld, Solingen and Mainz either have, or have in immediate contemplation, schools of the Charlottenburg and Gladbach type, and Dr. Grau believes that most great commercial towns will soon have them. Such a school means from the financial point of view an initial capital expenditure of £20 for each child in average attendance, together with an annual

expenditure of about £7 10s. for each child. Such a price is small when we consider the increased vitality for the community that it will secure.

These German Forest Schools are, perhaps, not more important than the Holiday Colonies organised in the neighbourhood of Zurich by the Rev. Dr. Bion. This Pastor was the pioneer of this type of work. His colony system was started more than thirty years ago and has benefited great numbers of anæmic, weak-lunged and nervous children. Every summer eight to nine hundred children are distributed among twelve stations in addition to the *Erholungs-station* (Convalescent Home) which is also open in the spring and autumn. The total cost of the work is about £2,000 (50,000 francs) a year. There are still a thousand children who stand in need of "Colonial" treatment. The needs of these poor children are partially met by what is called the "Milk-cure," especially started to supplement, though inadequately, the Holiday Colonies. The "Milk-cure" consists in giving the children fresh milk and bread daily in the country outside Zurich. The teachers also organise for the children who stay at home for their holidays what are known as "*Ferien-horte*" (Holiday Retreats). In 1906 thirty of these Retreats were organised. The children are brought together five or six times a week from 2 p.m. to 6 or 7 p.m. In fine weather they go for walks or sight-seeing, or watch the bears, play games or bathe. In wet weather they play indoor games or are read to in the schoolrooms. On the walks they are given bread and cheese or tea and bread. In the schoolroom they are given milk and bread, while on the whole day excursions, which take place occasionally, a simple dinner is provided. At first 2,084 children (1,621 boys and 463 girls) joined these parties. Later on 888 children (485 boys and 403 girls) were added, making in all 2,972. The expenses for the season amounted to 7,075 francs (£283); of this sum 1,121 francs was raised, apparently privately, while the deficit of 5,954 francs was chiefly met by the town. The organisers consisted of 44 gentlemen and 25 ladies, for the most part teachers in the schools. The average cost was probably under five shillings per head—a remarkable achievement. Of course all services were given free and special terms were secured from steamers and railway companies. The experience now obtained has suggested the following improvements. The number of parties should be increased. Thirty parties give sixty children to one party, and this is far too many. English experience shows that twenty-five is ample. The start should be made early in the day and the outing should last all day. The food should be supplied by local inns, and in districts where they are not available "Forest-Homes" (*Waldheime*) should be built at the public expense. They should contain one large room to hold 150 to 200 children, a kitchen, a store room, (*Vorrathskammer*), and lavatories. The tramway system would be of assistance to the scheme. It is suggested that the parents should contribute towards the cost of the food where possible. The "Forest-Homes" have already proved their usefulness in various parts of Germany.

An experiment in boarding children out in cottage homes near Zurich was made in the late autumn of 1906 with six boys and six girls between the ages of ten and thirteen years. The children helped in their hosts' work. The holiday lasted for a fortnight and was in every case a glorious success. The total cost was very low. One of the teachers writing of this country cottage holiday said, "Man muss es in ihren Augen leuchten und flimmern gesehen haben, all das Glück der verlebten Ferientage, das frohe Geniessen der Landfreuden. Diese Augen erzählten von einer liebevollen, verständigen Umgebung, wo sich die Kinder wie eigen fühlten, ferner von der Lust und Liebe, welche man den ländlichen Arbeiten entgegenbrachte. Eine Ferienverlängerung wäre allen nur zu willkommen gewesen. Unsere Hörtinge kamen uns in den kurzen vierzehn Tagen wie ausgewechselt vor. Ordentlich luft und sonnengebraunt waren die Gesichter, die Bewegungen viel lebhafter. Alles atmete Leben und Sonnenschein."\*

We may compare the Charlottenburg Forest School with the Children's Village at Humble, in Haddingtonshire, founded and organised by the Voluntary Committee of the Edinburgh Children's Holiday Home Fund. This Committee has been at work since the year 1887, boarding out poor Edinburgh children. "Each cottager with whom the little holiday maker is placed, receives 10s. per fortnight, and the additional expenditure for clothing, railway fare, &c., amounts to something like 2s. The average cost per child is between 11s. and 12s."

In 1902, Mrs. Stirling Boyd, the Honorary Secretary of the Fund, who had been connected with the work for eighteen years, "conceived the idea of founding a Children's Village, where children, weak and ailing, though possibly not unwell enough to secure admission to the Children's Hospital or similar institutions, might be sent to recuperate. The idea commended itself to the Committee, and now the latter are the owners of eleven acres of ground at Humble, which they purchased from Lord Polwarth, one of the vice-patrons of the Fund. Two anonymous donors and other subscribers built the first two cottages of the Colony; a third was erected with money collected by Miss Chalmers, the founder of the original Holiday Home, with which scheme the Edinburgh Holiday Fund is now amalgamated; and the matron's house and the school are now (1905) in course of erection. It is the intention of the Committee to add to the village as funds permit. The cost of each cottage varies in proportion to its size. The intention of the Committee is to have about a dozen cottages erected at Humble, each holding from ten to eighteen children, and the cost of this scheme, including ground, water supply, &c., is estimated at about £12,000. Large though the amount is, the Committee are thoroughly convinced that, with the generous

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\* *Neue Zürcher Zeitung und Schweizerisches Handelsblatt.* August 16th, 1907.

help of the public, careful management, and strict economy, it can be obtained.”\*

Miss Balfour, of Whittingehame, laid the foundation of the Village School building on June 24th, 1905, and the community makes steady progress. “The colony is conducted on the ‘family’ principle, and the entire village is supervised by a matron—who . . . served for some time in the Children’s Hospital—and also is responsible to a Local Committee, and through them to the Central Committee in Edinburgh.” The school has been built to secure a continuity of studies for the children sent from the town to the country life. The work, under a resident teacher, has been most successful, and the children on returning to school life in Edinburgh show an improved quality of work. The site has been chosen so as to secure the maximum of advantages.

“The village is about two miles distant from Humber. Standing about 600 feet above the sea-level, it is situated in the heart of a pretty piece of rural scenery. Through the sloping meadow-land purchased by the Committee runs a ‘burn’—a most fascinating part of the rural playground it is, too—and the whole picture presented to the visitor—the wide expanse of open country, the neat little cottages, with their ‘harled’ walls and red tiled roofs, each surrounded by a trim plot of well-kept garden ground—is a very attractive one.” The excellent account from which this description is taken concludes as follows:—“The holiday, however, in many cases is not quite free, and this is one of the most interesting features of the scheme. Not infrequently do the Committee find the parents displaying a lively appreciation of the benefits conferred upon their children by the fund, and many of them contribute towards the cost of the holiday according to their ability. Even though the contributions are small, in the majority of cases at least, they are valued by the Committee, more especially as they are voluntary. Much of the value of the children’s colony lies in this—that in many cases it affords weak and ailing children a fair chance to throw off what in all probability would develop into serious illness. It would indeed be difficult to estimate the value of the preventive work accomplished through this agency. If more of our slum children could be sent annually for a fortnight’s holiday in the country, where they would be properly cared for and nourished, less might be heard of the deterioration of the race.”

The Health Colonies and Vacation Schools of Holland, however, supply the best, or at any rate very important, evidence and precedents for the guidance of similar institutions in England. Herr A. C. Bos, the Secretary of the *Centraal Genootschap voor Kinderherstellings-en Vacantie-Kolonies*, in his volume entitled *Gezondheids-Kolonies* (published in 1899 at Egmond aan Zee, the proceeds of the sale being devoted to the Dutch Teachers’ Convalescent Home) traces in useful detail the gradual adoption in many European countries of Health Colonies for the benefit

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\* *The Evening Dispatch* (Edinburgh), June 21st, 1905.

of ailing children, and shows the high value of such institutions under great varieties of social conditions. The system of Health and Vacation Colonies was started in Amsterdam in the year 1883, under the superintendence of Mr. A. Kerdijk. It was a voluntary movement. In 1884 the subscriptions amounted to £225, and in 1885 to £350. In the first year 179 children, in eight groups (three composed of girls and five of boys), were sent for three weeks to Austerlitz and Wijk aan Zee. At Austerlitz the children were lodged in an inn, while at the seaside (Wijk) a building belonging to a bathing company was available. Before the children left Amsterdam, on their return, and again three months later, their chest measurements, etc., were taken. The children who had been at the seaside gave the best results. The following questions relating to the children received satisfactory answers after the experiment was over: (1) Has health improved? (2) Has school attendance improved? (3) Can improvement be noticed in mental outlook? (4, 5 and 6) Is the child more orderly, more lively, less troublesome, and less dissatisfied with its surroundings? (*Bespeurt gij, dat het kind ontevreden is met zijne huiselijke omgeving?*)

Subscriptions continued to increase, and were supplemented by profits of entertainments given by children. In 1885 one hundred and eighty children were sent to the Colonies. In 1886 rooms were secured in part of an orphanage at Zeist, where 122 children were housed. This was found to save about sixpence per head *per diem*. In 1887 about £3,400 was obtained for the work from the proceeds of a "World's Fair," organised at the *Paleis voor Volksvlijt*, and a villa was bought at Zandvoort by the sea. One drawback to this big windfall was, that it tended to check subscriptions. Henceforward, however, 300 children were sent to the Colonies. Four groups of 60 children were sent to Zandvoort, and three of 30 children to Austerlitz. The holiday for each child lasted three weeks. Children most needing the rest had more than one holiday. The work ate into the capital, and in the year 1896 the yearly subscriptions had fallen to £260. In 1897 it was impossible to provide holidays for more than 180 children. The Jewish community in Amsterdam, in 1896, began to work on their own account, and started a colony at Wijk aan Zee for 16 children. Another colony, privately maintained, was opened at Egmond aan Zee in 1897. It was for the restoration of health, on the lines adopted at Zurich. The house was only five minutes from the sea, and had a garden. The aspect was south. The doctors declared that the results secured at Egmond could not have been obtained at the Amsterdam Hospital, even with the greatest care. Convalescents recovering from diseases such as neurasthenia, malaria, eczema, croup, scrofula, tuberculosis, skin, eye, and bone diseases, were cured in one to two months. The patients were found to have good appetites and to sleep well. The season at Egmond is from May to October, and during that period 30 adults and thirty children (between the ages of six and twelve years) are admitted for five weeks each.

At Middelburg a wealthy widow, Madame de Bruin, has given her castle and grounds, known as "Westhoven," for the use of 20 children between the ages of six and twelve years. This home offers a long rest of three-and-a-half months to serious cases. The children are carefully selected, and the help is given to children of the most deserving parents. The patients must bring their own boots, but are supplied with clothes. It is a model of a home for the betterment of childhood, but is rather a sanatorium than a School Health Colony. The coach-houses have been turned into playgrounds, while the large reception-rooms have been converted into bath-rooms. The children are periodically weighed and measured. The parents can visit them once a month. The scheme is perhaps open to criticism, on the ground that it removes the children almost entirely from the environment and ideas of their normal life. This home may be compared with the Yarrow Convalescent Home for children of the better class founded and endowed in 1895 at Broadstairs in Kent by Mr. Yarrow. It is "for the benefit of children recovering from illness who may be expected to derive permanent benefit from a temporary stay at the seaside." It accommodates 50 boys and 50 girls, the children of parents "who are obliged to maintain a respectable appearance on very limited means." The boys must be between the ages of 4 and 12 years and the girls between 4 and 14 years. In a limited number of cases the age may be increased two years for both sexes where there is a prospect of permanent benefit after serious illness. No incurable cases are admitted, or cases of convalescence after infectious or contagious disease until three months have elapsed. "Each child must be provided with a brush and comb, two pairs of boots, a pair of indoor shoes, an overcoat or cloak, and an entire change of clothing." The Home is a model of organisation and the children live under conditions best calculated to give perfect rest to body and mind. Homes for poorer children have much to learn from this institution. The parents pay 5s. a week and can visit their child once a week—on Saturdays.

The scheme of School Colonies was begun in Rotterdam in 1885, when 19 children were sent to Ulvenhout and 21 children to Oost-Voorne for three weeks each. To-day Rotterdam has two holiday homes of her own, each taking 40 children. That at Ulvenhout forms a regular household, while the home at Oost-Voorne is supplied by contract. In 1897, at the latter place, 24 boys and 26 girls were supported at a cost of a little under 30s. per head for three weeks. At Ulvenhout the cost was much lower; for 65 boys and 90 girls the cost worked out at about 22s. 6d. per head for three weeks. The former, however, gave the better results. At Oost-Voorne, by the seaside, the average gain in weight in three weeks was about 4 lbs., while at Ulvenhout it was about 3 lbs. A longer stay gave better results. The children were closely watched after their return home for a period of four to six months. This seems a most important point. The results secured in 169 cases are given by M. Bos and seem very valuable. Fifteen children were absolutely

cured. These children stayed six weeks. One hundred and ten children were greatly improved in health. Their stay varied from three to six weeks. Thirteen children obtained permanent but only partial benefit. One of these stayed six weeks and the rest three weeks. With 20 children no permanent results were secured. Of these, one stayed six weeks and the rest three weeks. One child subsequently suffered from typhus fever. One child (who had been six weeks in the colony) died, and nine could not be traced. It is clearly an important matter for similar English colonies to adopt this careful method of tracing the subsequent history of cases. It says much for the Dutch methods that only nine children out of 169 should have disappeared. The same results could hardly be obtained in England.

We must note that the revenue of the Rotterdam Association for the year 1897-8 was about £393, exclusive of £500 devoted to the building of the home at Oost-Voorne. Active members of the association pay annually about 8s. 4d., while the minimum subscription of an honorary member is about 16s. 8d. Parents can subscribe if they like, and in 1897 they contributed the sum of £5 15s. 3d. Besides this institution there are two smaller associations in Rotterdam with the same end in view—the Jewish and the Old Catholic Associations. The former, starting in 1895, was able to spend in 1896 £106, and to close their account for the year with a reserve fund of £60. Twenty-eight children were sent to the Jewish colony at Wijk aan Zee, and one to Dieren. This association hopes soon to have a building of its own. The Old Catholic Association took six children to Scheveningen at a cost of about £17. This, however, does not exhaust the efforts made for the many child-sufferers in Rotterdam. In 1896 the number of children sent to the Sophia Children's Hospital was 301, while 58 were admitted to the Loosduinen Hospital. No less than 2,751 applications for help were made, of which 2,450 had to be attended at home. Among these applications were 375 cases of children suffering from insufficient feeding, 264 cases of complaints of the stomach and bowels, 201 cases of affected respiratory organs, 76 cases of scrofula, 59 of anæmia, 20 of chlorosis, making in all 995 cases of children urgently needing the curative forces of the sea or open country. There were other cases of an even more serious character. These 2,751 applications were for hospital treatment. It is clear enough that there were many more to whom a sojourn at the seaside or in the woods would have been a Godsend. Prevention is always better than cure. Rotterdam has realised this fact and in sending 320 children in need of such help to the seaside or the country and in doubling the holiday where the need was apparent, that city stands first among the cities of Holland in this noble form of social effort.

The Dutch doctors have been much impressed by the benefit bestowed on the community by the School Colonies. Dr. J. Kouwenhoven declares that, in view of the results obtained, every doctor ought to play a part in assisting these colonies.

He points out that the work of the Vacation Colonies is much assisted by walks or School Journeys which bring the facts of nature before the minds of the children without the effort of regular school work. It is found that history can be taught by direct observation during these walks, besides practical work, such as surveying the Colonies, and they are found to have a valuable effect on child morality. The children living together on equal terms become, on the one hand, self-reliant, as they have to help themselves, but on the other hand they learn also to depend on one another and to realise the meaning of brotherly love, of manners in the old sense of the word, of generosity and of obedience, by force of example and environment. They lose, too, that evil practice so prevalent among the very poor children in England as well as in Holland of living on sweets instead of buying food with the money given them by their parents for their dinner. The purchasing of sweets by children instead of food has become a regular habit among the very poor, and is responsible for many of the illnesses caused by mal-nutrition. In these homes the children are led to prefer simple good food to sweets. The small courtesies of life are instilled into the little people. We have in this book an account of the birthday of two children at the Health Colony. All hands were set to gather a plentiful supply of flowers, and to make simple bright decorations for the festival. This kind of natural life is found to have an important moral effect on poor little stubborn children who are brought to see the brighter side of life and to know how to laugh and sing. The children, however, are not only taught how to enjoy a holiday. All the minor decencies of life are brought home to them and made into habits. They are shown how to wash themselves and to like doing it, how to be tidy in the folding of clothes and other matters. The general ideas of cleanliness and neatness are impressed on their minds and it is found that the children leave the home with quite an altered outlook on life. They are taught also the folk-songs that can only take a real meaning in the country, and thus they carry back into town life songs that perpetuate the memory of their country holiday. One folk-song is quoted here that certainly has the rural ring:—

“ ’t is morgen, ’t is morgen, de haan heeft gekraaid,  
De vogeltjes zingen, de morgenwind waait,  
O zie, hoe de dauwdrop op’t klaverveld pralt,  
O zie eens, hoe prachtig het zonnetje straalt.”

[“ It is morn, it is morning, hark ! the cock crows,  
The birds are all singing, the morning wind blows.  
Oh, see how with dewdrops the cloverfield gleams,  
See how the sun scatters its beautiful beams.”]

M. Bos truly says that a song like this sung by town children who do not know the country can hardly be understood. But sung in the country by town children and carried by them back into the town it has a value that cannot be adequately expressed. This method of making town children learn country songs in the country and so bringing the country back with them into the



town might well be imitated in England. The children who go on School Journeys should learn many such songs and bring them back to London and Manchester and the other great centres of industry. Folk-songs might well prove a small but living link between town and country life.

The Country School or Village Home is really a conception that combines the advantages of all the various educational schemes considered in this Report. It brings the children into continuous contact with nature, it recreates a love for natural things, it brings back both physical and mental health, and checks the wastage, moral, mental, and spiritual, almost necessarily involved in continuous town life. If it were the law that every town child must spend one term of every school year at some Country School the bulk of our modern educational difficulties would vanish. At present, however, the School Journey or the School Expedition must give town children the necessary taste for rural life. I have pointed out elsewhere in this Report that it would not be impossible for arrangements to be made for children to be boarded out by some voluntary association during one school term and to attend the Country School. This would, of course, involve special arrangements between the various education authorities concerned, and it would have the additional advantages of raising the standard and scope of teaching in Village Schools, and of drawing town dwellers back to the land. Village "camp" Schools affiliated to Town Schools would probably answer the same purpose.\*

#### V. SCHOOL JOURNEYS.

Before considering the stage of development already reached in the English school expedition, it will be useful to examine briefly the theory and practice of the school journey in Germany, its original home, where it is regarded as an organic part of school life. It is very difficult to arrive at anything like a definite conclusion as to the value and efficiency of the school expedition in the curriculum of the average German school. No doubt in great educational centres, such as Jena, the expedition is generally planned and carried out with German thoroughness. On the other hand, pupils are to be found who have recently left school in Germany and who declare that the expeditions are perfunctorily carried out without preparation. I have had school journeys described to me that were a mere caricature of the real thing, and must have been really harmful to the pupils. Such cases are, no doubt, extremely rare, but that they exist is certain, and they must be guarded against in the development of the school journey as part of the English curriculum. It will be interesting here to note some of the points upon which Dr. Rein,† of Jena, the great German

\* See Country Schools for Town Children (Contemporary Review, May, 1907) by the present writer and Professor Findlay's views (*p. 22 above*).

† See generally as to Dr. Rein's views on school journeys his *Encyklopädisches Handbuch der Pädagogik*, Band vi., pp. 486-505, and *Aus dem Pädagogischen Universitäts-seminar zu Jena*, Hefte 3, 5, 8, 10.

educationalist, lays stress in connection with school journeys. Preparation for the school journey, he tells us, can be regarded in a wider or a narrower sense. In the wider sense this preparation comprises the whole school life. The school journey is then an organic part of the school plan. If this is so it is easier to prepare for the actual journey. The preparation should form the connecting link between the various parts of the school work. The scholars, Dr. Rein thinks, should not be aware of the organic part played in school life by the school journey, and the preparation for it.

In the narrower sense, preparation begins a few weeks before the actual journey. A few hours every week is given to it by the teachers who are to conduct the expedition. They divide the work among themselves by arrangement. Both the object and the actual form of the journey have to be considered. The object of the journey includes the learning of the geography, the plant and animal life, and the grouping of the inhabitants of the district visited, and their work and industries. Then the scholars have to consider the history of the area; that is to say, the part that it has played and still plays in the social, political, and spiritual life of the country, and what it has done for religion, art, knowledge, and organised trade. The sociable side of the journey has to be considered beforehand and involves the selection of suitable songs, poetry, stories, and games in addition to conversation, to avoid tedium. The journey plan must show how the destination is to be reached; notes in the journey book will indicate the things that have to be looked for or thought about on the journey. The children are to be made clearly to understand how they are to behave on the journey, how and when to march in order and so forth. A log of the journey must be kept. It will be found useful not to talk, while walking, of subjects that are not in some way connected with the journey. If these various precautions are taken, it will be found that the children will rapidly understand the various things now first *seen*, but which they have already learnt about in school.

The children must be trained (by means of gymnastics) in order to secure good marching power and the power to run and jump. The children should march in fixed order at the beginning and end of the journey. The company of students should be divided into sections, each of which should elect a leader from whose decision there should be an appeal to the teacher, and who should place all cases of need or difficulty before the teacher. In good time before the start is made a list of necessities for the journey should be given to each scholar. Two or three days before the journey there should be a rehearsal, so as to ascertain if the various duties assigned to the scholars can be carried out. There is also the important preliminary work of determining the cost of the journey, and of interviews with hotel-keepers about night accommodation. Trouble is, of course, avoided if private accommodation can be secured. Notice has to be given to the railway. A school box must be provided for collecting fares. Thought must be given to the

care of needy children who should go on the journey but can afford little or no money. Funds for such cases and for general expenses can be raised by the giving of school theatricals.

When the morning of the journey arrives there should be prayers and a hymn before the start is made. The children must enter the train quietly and must take turns to look out of the windows,\* so that none should be tired. The teacher should describe well-known objects. In order to avoid tedium the children should be allowed to sing or play or ask and answer riddles. They should also get into the way of receiving suggestions from the teachers. Strict marching order should only be ordered in public places. If the children become tired they should sing under the leadership of the teacher. The children should be allowed a little rest after two or three hours walking. They must have no alcohol, but may have a little water or milk or lemon juice on sugar. If possible, there should be half a day's rest after three or four days' marching. The chief meal should be in the evening (not too late) and should be hot and plentiful. In the daytime the children should have cold food, unless very tired, when they should have coffee or good soup. The teachers should have their meals with, and keep with the scholars. After supper there should be songs if the place is suitable, and they should be followed by prayers. Bed should be quite early, after bathing the feet and rubbing them with tallow. The teachers in the evening should do the shopping for the next day. On Sundays the children should be taken to church. Postcards should be written to the parents. Presents should be bought that will recall the journey, and the pupils should be encouraged to talk among themselves about the journey, to make notes and sketches, to use the Journey Card and the compass and to measure distances.

After the journey is done the teachers engaged should have a consultation as to the conduct of the journey, as to the sights seen, and as to the behaviour of the scholars. In serious cases of misbehaviour the question of punishment must be very seriously considered, as everything depends on the maintenance of discipline. The leader of the journey should keep a Minute as to the results of this conference for reference later on. It is always to be remembered that the preparation for the journey, as well as the journey itself, must be an organic part of the school life. After a school journey, the leader should spend a few hours in the effort to get a clear registered impression of results. There is little opportunity to do this on the journey itself. During the following period of school life the teacher ought to go back to the experiences of the expedition. These experiences will be found of value in teaching history and geography, and in lessons on Nature-study and singing, and the

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\* In fact this is a very questionable suggestion. The quick motion of the train causes the eyes to move too rapidly and continuously with the result that eye-strain and headache are induced. The fatigue that arises from railway travelling generally arises from this habit of looking out of the window.

scholars also will be found to realise the use of the journey. The teacher should give his pupils a short account of the educational value of the journey. The journey will be found to bring together important material for teaching purposes and to supply special pedagogic and didactic experiences. Moreover, one journey will supply material and experience for the next journey, and will show how the educational idea of the school journey may be extended.

Herr. E. Scholz, of Jena, in his paper on the School Journey,\* goes over much the same ground, but he gives us some further details as to preparation that may be quoted with advantage. The children should have a complete set of clothing in good condition. They should have strong shoes, but not new. Lace shoes are the best. Each child should carry in a knapsack one or two shirts with collars, two pairs of stockings, two or three handkerchiefs, slippers, preferably of leather, a towel, washing flannel, soap, tooth-brush, comb or hair-brushes, grease for the feet,† overcoat in case of violent rain, shawl or plaid (an umbrella is not of much use). In order to lessen the amount of luggage each division should take one clothes-brush, two shoe-brushes, shoe-grease and rags, needles, thread, buttons, and a drinking vessel. For the whole party there should be one small medicine chest containing remedies for upset stomachs and accidents; telescope, compass, tape measure, small plant press, insect-bottles, geological hammer, and sometimes an aneroid and pedometer. A horn is useful to collect the children, but drums and musical instruments are troublesome. The start each day should be both early and strenuous. A slack start makes a slack journey. The leaders must be first on the spot. Notes of the previous day's journey should be made before breakfast. Before the start the disposition of baggage (especially of the day's food) must be made, with arrangements as to carriage by different divisions of the party. The principal part of the day's work should ordinarily be done in the morning.

It will be generally admitted that many or most of the ideas and suggestions here made by practical German teachers are of value, though doubtless some modifications are necessary when the school journey is made in other countries. If we now turn from the suggestions of the pedagogic theorists to actual school journeys and criticism on such journeys, we shall understand the German methods a little better. Miss Catherine I. Dodd has described at length a school journey‡ from Jena, and as this is likely to be as favourable a specimen of a German expedition

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\* See *Encyklopädisches Handbuch der Pädagogik*, Band vi., pp. 486-506. *Schulreise* by E. Scholz (Langensalza, 1899).

† Attention to the condition of the toe-nails and general preparation of the feet for walking is a very important detail and should be impressed on the pupils. The use of the tooth-brush is not mentioned by English writers. It is most important, as many ailments are directly traceable to the neglect of the teeth.

‡ "A School Journey in Germany." (*National Review*, November, 1897.)

as will be found I propose to deal with it here. Miss Dodd tells us :—

“Every day in the German schools, particularly in those professing Herbartian principles in Middle Germany, one finds classes of children in the garden, by the river, in the slate quarry, or rambling through the forest. These excursions are not taken at haphazard, they are closely interwoven with the whole course of instruction. If the boys are studying Luther, they visit Eisleben, the Wartburg, and Wittenburg, and history becomes a reality to them, as they see the ink-stains on Luther's table, and the church door to which he affixed his propositions. Before they are permitted to use any general geographical terms, the concrete realities must be perfectly clear to them. Real rivers, valleys, and hills are carefully studied before maps and definitions are used. No opportunity is neglected of giving the children real knowledge of things and events which they may see and think about for themselves. Short excursions are daily occurrences, and are to be found on every time-table, but the school journey proper is a systematic and serious event, which lasts from two to fourteen days. The school journey begins in the third school year, when the boys are eight years of age. A boy of fourteen who has completed his eighth school year has probably made five journeys during his school life.” Miss Dodd in 1897 “accompanied the boys of the third school year on their first school journey, which took place at the end of September.” Preparatory to the journey a geography lesson was given on the Galgenberg overlooking the Saale and the valley in which Jena lies. The children pointed out the features of the neighbourhood. The district to be visited, the Unstrutthal, was described in class with a blackboard. The children were instructed how to observe churches and castles. Boys of the fourth year told their experiences to the boys of the third year about to start on this journey. A general geography lesson on the district to be visited dealt with its towns, rivers, railways, manufactures and products. On the day before the journey there was a knapsack drill.

“The boots and clothes of the boys were carefully examined by the master, and all useless items were discarded from knapsacks. At 6.30 in the morning we started by rail from Jena. Our party consisted of about fifteen small boys of eight years, the Head Master of the Jena Pedagogical Seminary, and two students of pedagogy and philosophy. One was a Servian, whom we all called “the little Pestalozzi” because of his affection and tenderness towards children, and the other was a buoyant Bulgarian. Both these men were studying Herbartian principles of education in Jena, with the intention of organising similar schools in their own countries later.”

The party discussed the journey and sang in the train until Grossheringen was reached at 7.30 a.m. Thence the party walked to the confluence of the Elbe and the Saale. Questions were asked as to the different colours and rates of flow of the two rivers. A talk followed about the Slavs and the defence organised against

them by knights and by means of fortified castles. The children were told that the Servians and Bulgarians were Slavs. A war-game followed. The children tried the echo on the way up to the Saaleck but apparently it was not explained to them. A talk followed about ravens and autumn leaves and fruits. The party reached Rudelsburg at 9.30 a.m., and bought at an inn coffee and black bread, and also post cards for the parents. Here was a war monument to students who fell in the war of 1870: "war monuments are the chief things in Germany," one child exclaimed. The party descended again into the valley and along the Saale and watched the manure being spread upon the fields, and a talk followed about the preparation for the spring crops. The troop now reached the beech avenue to the Bucken Halle. Here they rested from eleven to twelve, and then moved on along a chestnut avenue. From the highway they saw groups of women in the fields gathering potatoes and burning weeds. On reaching Kösen the boys had their dinner of black bread and sausage. Miss Dodd here left the party and rested, rejoining them at the railway station at 3.0 p.m. Here the train (third class) was taken for Naumburg to visit the twelfth century cathedral. In the cool crypt the boys took off their packs and sang a hymn. They then passed on to ascend a tower while the exhausted Miss Dodd sped away for a cup of tea. Seven o'clock found the travellers still at work. A little later they all partook of a meal at an inn where the boys were served with "soup, beef-steak, potatoes, black bread, stewed fruit and wheat-beer," for seven pence a head. They ate, we are told, in orderly fashion, and said grace before and after the meal. They then resumed their journey arriving at Freiburg by train at ten at night. It was a star-lit night and as the boys trotted along the quaint cobbled streets to the inn they made out the chief constellations. Miss Dodd adds: "Some of the boys had bedrooms, but most of them slept in a large room above the stables in improvised beds, the Servian slept with them. I assisted at the undressing of the boys, and attended to bruises and cuts, while the landlord and stablemen held the lanterns to give me light. The next day was less fatiguing and more interesting. I considered the physical strain upon the boys too severe the first day, but when I made this objection to the master he urged that German children are accustomed to long days out of doors, and further that the school journey aims at training the boys in endurance." Certainly the school journey described by Miss Dodd has few points to recommend it from the point of view of English scholars. A seventeen-hour day for children of 8 years filled with very tiring physical and mental exercise is absolutely indefensible from any educational point of view. There is nothing humanising, nothing of the spirit of any of the great English, French, or German educationalists in such an experiment. The principle of wearing the children out is, however, definitely accepted in Germany, and no protest is likely to affect any change. There is, fortunately, no probability of these excesses being adopted in this country where the new tendency is to adapt the educational system to the individual, and not to make a Procrus-

tean bed for the children of the land. Of course much depends upon the type of children who are the subject of an educational system. The German children who were the subject of the Jena experiment described by Miss Dodd certainly were peculiarly well suited to the test. We are told that "the boys behaved well during the whole time, there was not the least trouble with them. Their obedience was perfect, they did as they were told promptly, and they always asked permission before they attempted to do the slightest thing that might interfere with the harmony of the party. There was a touch of military discipline about the regulations of the school journey, but it was tempered by much geniality and kindness on the part of the masters. The German has infinite patience and tenderness in dealing with children; that is why he makes such an admirable school-master.\* There is something very human in the treatment of children which strikes the visitor on entering German and Swiss schools, and one no longer wonders that Froebels and Pestalozzis arose in these countries. We have elaborate time-tables and we teach many things in our schools, but we too often miss the humanising element. If children are to become right-thinking, right-acting human beings, we must put them into proper relation with mankind and with their environment. The school journey is one means towards this end, and if we could induce our school teachers to spend some part of the school time out of doors with their classes, we might produce more intelligent and thoughtful men and women."

The German system as described by Miss Dodd, however, is scarcely defensible taken as a whole, though an analysis of its various parts gives us some admirable results. But no formal educational method can be applied for seventeen successive hours without producing obedient dulness and all the other evils of the barrack system of education. Miss Dodd, in the beginning of a paper on a school journey in Derbyshire, quotes the following passage from Pestalozzi's journal in 1774 in which he records his little son's education: "Lead your child out into Nature, teach him on the hill top, and in the valleys. There he will listen better, and the sense of freedom will give him more strength to overcome difficulties. But in these hours of freedom let him be taught by Nature rather than by you. Should a bird sing, or an insect hum on a leaf, at once stop your talk; bird and insect are teaching him; you may be silent." It can hardly be said that the German method follows Pestalozzi's ideas, which were to bring the child unconsciously within the educative influence of Nature and to let Nature do her work.

In an unpublished paper from which I have been allowed to quote, Mr. F. D. Acland, who spent five months in Jena in 1899 (two years later than the journey described by Miss Dodd), throws a great deal of light on the best German methods. The conceptions of Dr. Rein and the Herbartian school of thought that he represents are probably nearer to English educational

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\* It will be noticed that this view is definitely challenged below.

ideals than the theory that underlies the work of the average German teacher. But it must be remembered that what we learn at Jena is not characteristic of all Germany or even of all Middle Germany. We are learning of a great and practical thinker, not of a nation. "The main lesson to be learnt from Rein's organisation . . . is this, that the existence of an adequate number of well-educated, well-trained teachers, not only interested in their work but willing to work at their work, lies at the root of every educational problem both in the primary and the secondary sphere . . . ." But "Rein and the German Herbartians do not see that certain essential points of good character, though gained at school, cannot in their very essence be gained through instruction." It is not true that the formal end of education can be gained through instruction. Pestalozzi, as we have seen, knew this well enough. In Jena, however, there is "neglect in the theory of the non-instructional side of training." "The school garden, the school journey, and the celebration of national festivals, though placed most excellently in the Herbartian theory with a view to knitting together and engraving on the pupil's mind the particular interest matter that he has acquired, by no means replace the many and varied methods in which English children are helped to stimulate their own and each others thoughts, actions, and characters."

Even in the hands of the teachers from Dr. Rein's Practising School the German school journey does not attain the objects aimed at. We have seen the journey that Miss Dodd accompanied. It will be useful to compare our ideas of that journey with the ideas that the writer just quoted had of the Jena journeys in 1899. The school journeys at Jena have been for some years most interesting studies. "The appropriate instruction is planned out for each step of the way. The number of minutes to be given to a formal listening to the murmuring of the brooks is elaborately settled beforehand. The school journey is meant to put the apex upon the instruction of the year in every subject, and certainly does so if only the children are not starved when they come to the critical points. But from the side of the German teacher at any rate there is no endeavour either to let the boys range and find their own interests, or to help them by talk and encouragement to a full enjoyment of the occasion. The march is like that of a little army, the boys are to notice what they are told. There is little sympathy or real friendliness, little of the helping of character by character in which an English school journey conducted by good masters would be so rich. The very postcards written home must be *viséd* by the teacher, and must be made grammatical. It appears that the German teacher turns his efforts too much to the production of the average type and neglects the individuality of the unit."

The German teacher's reply is that this is the fault of the State, which demands the evolution of a high average type rather than the cultivation of genius and individuality. Certainly in the matter of school journeys there is much to be learned in England from the facts as to German school journeys. State



control and organisation are as necessary here as in Germany, and the school journey can never become general and efficient until it is the subject of special control and organisation, but there is certainly no need to imitate slavishly even the best German methods, though we must remember that Dr. Rein and others place at our disposal suggestions which, taken in detail, are of the greatest value. The spirit of the system must be English and not German. There is, however, an immense amount to be learned from the material collected by the various German specialists. One instance of their thoroughness will suffice. In all the English literature that I have read on the subject of school journeys I have seen no note on the problems of hygiene that are necessarily related to such excursions. Yet it is obvious that the dangers of contracting serious diseases are not slight; in strange inns and boarding houses germs of every kind may lurk. The picture drawn by Fräulein Wilhelmine Geissler in her exhaustive monograph on the subject\* is gruesome but not exaggerated. One may contract fearful diseases by drinking from an unwashed glass. This monograph might usefully be translated for the use of leaders of school expeditions. Meantime it is necessary to impress upon all who are organising school journeys the necessity of scrupulous care in all questions relating to possible contagion, whether arising from the use of linen, towels, glass, crockery, and food, or connected with the sanitary arrangements in the places visited on the march. The most ordinary precautions are often overlooked. Probably few organisers carry with them a supply of disinfectants. Yet such a supply is a necessity, and should be used freely in all lavatories that are at the disposal of the children.

Miss Dodd, who has had useful experience of school journeys in Belgium and Hungary and England, as well as Germany, evidently bases her idea of what a school journey should be upon the methods recommended by Pestalozzi, despite her praise of the methods of Jena. It will, therefore, be interesting to be taken by her on a Girls' School Journey in Derbyshire.† The expedition was organised in June, 1902, by twenty women teachers, who were being trained at the Owens College, Manchester. The children (including two boys) were drawn from the Owens Practising School, and were from eight to twelve years of age.

The map of the road from Hayfield to Glossop was drawn and studied before starting. The children were told what luggage to bring, and the student-teachers were given full instructions. Some were to lead and find the way and so help to carry out the programme. Others were to form a rear-guard to encourage stragglers, and even carry them if tired. Others were caterers and were to find places for lunch and rest. Others were nurses, with needle, thread, lint, and plaster for accidents. Others were

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\* *Pädagogisch-Hygienische Betrachtungen für Schulausflüge.* (Neue Jahrbücher für Pädagogik. B. G. Teubner. Leipzig, 1907.)

† "A School Journey in Derbyshire," by Catherine I. Dodd. (*National Review*, August, 1902.)

teachers, with special information on the subject matters that would arise on the journey. Others were reporters and critics. Others again were 'ladies-in-waiting and ladies-of-the-bed-chamber.' "The latter supervised the washing and dressing operations of the children, and were responsible for the neat appearances of their charges, and the proper changes of pinafores and blouses."

In the train the party talked about mile-posts and the country passed through. On arriving at Hayfield, the caterers collected the luggage and found a carriage for it to Park Hill; the leaders started to find the way, while a short lesson was given about the Great Central Railway. The party then marched through the village along the highway, and then along a stream to "a wooded hillside close to the moors and mountains." All the natural objects and birds and flowers were talked about. After resting, the rubbish brought by the children was burnt to prevent the leaving of litter. The school-song was then sung, the farm visited and milk drunk, and then the children rambled away into the wild country to a place where sheep were waiting to be washed. Here the children sat down on the hillside and ate chocolate. A march along a moor, with a lesson about the moor, followed this, and three miles took the party to Park Hall (which had been acquired by the Co-operative Holiday Association), where all were to be lodged and fed. Very special terms were made for the entertainment of the party, and the cost of the whole expedition (three days), including fares, was less than 9s. a head per child.\* At 6.30 p.m. children and students sat down together to a hot meal, and then, after the children had written post cards home and had filled up their records of the journey and had gone to bed, a conference was held at 9.0 p.m. discussing the events of the day, and by 10.30 p.m. all were in bed. On the second day breakfast was at 8.0 a.m., and the children assembled before this hour in the garden and sang a hymn. The march began at 8.30 a.m., and, despite the rain, the day was a success. "A day's walk together does more to establish relations than six months in a class room," observed one student. "Yes," replied another; "and you feel differently for ever towards a child after you have washed it." An antiquarian friend joined the party, and gave much information, and this was supplemented by talks on botany. "Everybody was wet and weary when Charlesworth was reached." Refuge was taken in the chapel, and a lesson was given on the history of the place. Lunch was eaten in the vestry—"Piles upon piles of bread and butter, hard-boiled eggs, and cheese."

Then the party marched on to the Roman Camp and Quarry. "The Romans must have lived, or they couldn't have made a camp," observed a girl of eleven. After lunch the march was resumed to Glossop, and after tea a visit was paid to the paper mills. Logs from Norway were examined with interest. Wagonettes took the whole party back to Park Hall.

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\* This is heavy compared with the cost of the journey in the same district next described.

On the third day school was held on the moors in the morning, and the lessons of the previous days were recapitulated and revised, and some attempt was made to arrange the material accumulated on the journey in the children's note books, and (which was more important) in their minds. There was also a very successful singing lesson on the moor. After the midday meal there was a ramble in the grounds, and at tea the children were joined by parents who visited the party and returned with them to Manchester in the evening.

It will be useful to compare this account of a girls' school journey with the boys' journey in the same district presently to be described.

It is unnecessary here to deal at length with the school journeys organised from 1877 to 1900, by Mr. Joseph H. Cowham, of the Westminster Training College, as the Board of Education have already issued a competent monograph by Mr. Cowham dealing in detail with these journeys.\* It will be sufficient to quote Sir H. Evelyn Oakeley's report† on these journeys. He says:—

"The study of geography at this college (Westminster) has for twenty years been supplemented by a 'School Journey' from Croydon to Godstone, under the guidance of the Master of Method (Mr. Cowham). Before it, maps and plans of the district are drawn, and the general arrangement of the geological formations is studied, viz., the flat clay district of Norwood, the undulating chalk areas beyond Croydon, and the picturesque district of Caterham, due to the presence of sands and gravels in the midst of and upon the chalk. The value of thus connecting the facts of geography with their causes, and of exercising judgment and reason in place of a mere remembrance of names, is obvious. This is the best way to teach geography, and I am glad to learn that some teachers who have been at Westminster have taken groups of their scholars in a similar manner."

Mr. Cowham, out of his long experience, summarises the advantage of the School Journey as follows:—

- "(1) Accurate first-hand knowledge of a given limited and readily accessible area is formed. This first-hand knowledge—full, accurate and permanent—gives a possession of high value for purposes of gaining clear notions of districts which cannot be similarly visited.
- "(2) The power to observe is quickened, and, at the same time, ability to concentrate effort upon a few well-defined objects in the midst of great profusion and variety of material is gradually acquired.
- "(3) A few truths, strikingly illustrated, and capable of wide application, are established in every journey. The accumulation of many isolated facts is avoided.
- "(4) The power to apply knowledge in possession to the acquisition of further knowledge, provides both a means and a stimulus for the exercise of self-effort.
- "(5) Besides being of direct service in the acquisition of reliable knowledge, the participation in a few 'School Journeys' enables the pupil to use his after School rambles and exercises rationally, and with pleasure to himself and others.

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\* The School Journey (London to Caterham) made by Students at the Westminster Training College, 1877-1900. See Board of Education. Special Reports on Educational Subjects. Vol. 8, p. 625 ff. (Cd. 835. 1902.)

† See Report of the Committee of Council on Education (England and Wales) with Appendix 1898-99, p. 354. (Cd. 9401. 1899.)

- "(6) In some accounts it has been deemed advisable to limit participation in the 'School Journey' to those deserving of prize or distinction. No such limit is advised here. Frequently the dull and indifferent boy in school and bookwork proves both active and interested in the outdoor effort. This activity, aroused by the outdoor exercise, reacts upon the scholar's effort in the school.
- "(7) Lastly, the social and æsthetic advantages are not overlooked. A love of nature is engendered. Teacher and scholar display mutual sympathy and regard. School work is intellectually benefited and school life is morally elevated."

Mr. Cowham's work, of course, was with students approaching adolescence and not with children, but he certainly went to the root of the matter if we may judge from the work of Mr. G. G. Lewis, one of the thousand or more English teachers who have accompanied Mr. Cowham on the Caterham ramble and learnt his methods and ideas.

Before considering the admirable work of the Kentish Town Road London County Council School, under Mr. Lewis, it will be found convenient to refer to certain other school journeys to some of which the Kentish Town journeys are largely indebted.

A scheme of school journeys adopted by the Barnsley School Board in 1899\* was certainly a very considerable contribution to the practice of school journeys. It was a scheme of six organically connected visits to various places at stated intervals, each visit occupying one day. "There are great advantages in allowing intervals of school work, because not only will the scholars more thoroughly assimilate previous instruction, but be efficiently prepared for the next journey by collecting, comparing, and arranging the various branches of information bearing upon that district." The preparation for each journey was, of course, a matter of vital importance. A time-table of outdoor instruction had to be drawn up, the exact route had to be studied beforehand; maps had to be prepared by the children with times and distances carefully noted. It was a definite rule that not too much was to be attempted either in distance or instruction. The expenses of the journey are paid by the scholars. This is arranged as follows:—Six months before the scheme took effect parents were told and invited to allow the children to contribute small weekly payments. The idea was taken up with great enthusiasm, and more was contributed than was needed. The children took their own provisions with them on their day journeys, which occupied the school hours of the day. On the appointed day they assembled as usual, and started as soon as the register was marked, returning in time for the school dismissal in the afternoon. This practice was adopted at the Central Higher Grade School, Barnsley. Mr. J. Matthew England, the organiser of these walks, attributed the following benefits to the system:—

- (1) It suggests a return to more natural methods of acquiring knowledge, and a revolt from that dependence on books which saps the power of acquiring knowledge by means of personal selection at first hand.

\* Three School Journeys in Yorkshire in 1899. See Board of Education, Special Reports on Educational Subjects, Vol. 8, p. 606. ff. (Cd. 835. 1902.)

- (2) It gives a physical and moral training. "For a race of explorers and colonisers this is much better than a fortnight's military drill at a boys' camp. The organiser of the journey can utilise the varied physical and intellectual powers of his company, assigning to each different duties and researches according to taste and ability, and combine all their work so as to achieve a definite end, like a leader of a great scientific expedition."

It should be noted that in the scheme of each visit are described the place visited, its natural features, geography, botany, natural history, historical associations, and industries.

An interesting journey (noted in the same report) was that on July 20th, 1899, of eighteen boys from Thornhill Board School, Rotherham, led by the headmaster, Mr. Joseph Wollman, and Mr. W. J. Flamank (a certificated teacher). The start was made at 9.40 and "we had timed ourselves to be at the various halting places so as to be able to keep up a speed of not more than three miles an hour, and this plan worked excellently." An excellent itinerary of this journey is supplied. The journey was to Roche Abbey, Sandbeck, and Firbeck. It was, we are told, a long climb from Wellgate to Broom (A.S. "brum" = healthy) and then on to Wickersley with the traditionally haunted grange. The architecture of the church was discussed. Then the party passed on to Bramley and across a little stream to Maltby. A spring of very cold unfailing water out of rocks by the road was noted. In a village called Market or Butter Cross (cf. Charing and other crosses) an old cross, with steps and mouldings, was noticed. Very lovely scenery from Maltby, with view of the village was observed. One boy wished that he was an artist. The party went on through Norwood Glade and were there told the history of Roche or "Rock" Abbey—a Cistercian House of the twelfth century. No plans are known of this lovely Abbey with its beautiful tracery. Stone coffins were noticed. An effort was made to recall the actual life of the monks. In the village of Stone cave dwellings in the rocks containing fireplaces were noticed. In Sandbeck Park attention was called to the deer. Firbeck Hamlet was reached at 2.30 p.m., and the return journey was made by way of the fields to the Abbey, and on as before through Maltby, where refreshments were taken. The party arrived at Rotherham at 6.45 p.m., having walked twenty miles.

The third Yorkshire journey was made on 13th July, 1899, by fifteen boys from the Doncaster Corporation School. It was a half-day journey and the boys started at 2 p.m. in showery weather. They had been told to bring light waterproof coats, if available, or umbrellas, a copy of "Ivanhoe" with marked passages, a bag for specimens, and a note book. The whole of the arrangements were carefully planned beforehand, and the leader of the party had made himself acquainted with the district to be traversed. The route to Conisboro' was selected because it is interesting and attractive, and supplied historic associations that appeal to boys. It is, moreover, rich in botanic specimens, and is connected by train with Doncaster. The actual route taken was the valley of the Don to Conisboro' by way of Balby, Sprotboro',

Levitt Hag, and "The Cliffs." The party first passed through Balby, a suburb of Doncaster. Here the Quakers met under George Fox. This fact gave the opportunity for a discussion of the term Quaker. The valley of the Don was part of the great forest in which Robin Hood roamed. Its appearance in the time of *Ivanhoe* and the changes that have since come were described. Sprotboro' church, with its "stone sanctuary chair," of which there are only three in England, was visited. The boys also saw the site of the old boat house where Sir Walter Scott wrote "*Ivanhoe*." Levitt Hag is a limestone district, and here the limekilns could be seen and certain chemical processes, as well as important fossils. The wooded cliffs supplied a valuable botany lesson, while Conisboro' Castle afforded a variety of information. It is an ancient site—Caer Conan (British), Conan Brygh (Saxon),—on a height between the town and river. The attention of the boys was drawn to the moat and drawbridge, to the courtyard with its Saxon walls, to the cylindrical Norman keep. The boys returned by train, reaching home at 7.30. It is to be noted of this journey that frequent attention was drawn to the beauty of the landscape and of the flowers seen on the way. Each boy wrote out an account of the journey of which the best, an excellent essay, was printed. The boys were bright and intelligent. There was no apparent restraint and conversation was encouraged, yet complete control was retained. The total cost of the trip was 20s. or not much above 1s. per head.

It is quite clear that journeys of this sort can and should be taken in every part of England. There is no part where there are not places full of historical associations within a short distance, where, in fact, all the advantages of this Doncaster journey cannot be obtained. This is particularly the case in London where, in the vast majority of cases, boys and girls are entirely ignorant of the historical significance of their surroundings. Even in Greenwich, the most historical spot in England, the children are generally profoundly ignorant of the history of the place. The present writer has led several school journeys of very poor children in Greenwich Park with gratifying results. Short journeys to Greenwich Park, Greenwich Hospital, Blackheath, and Eltham might well occupy the attention of all the school children in South London instead of a mere handful.

As we shall see directly, admirable work is done by some schools on the other side of London, on Hampstead Heath.

For the moment I wish, however, to refer to longer journeys by London children. The excursions from the Bellenden Road Higher Grade School have now become notable facts in the progress of education in London. The excursion this year was the twelfth that has been organised out of London. At Easter, 1906 (Saturday, April 14th to Saturday, April 21st), the journey to the Wye Valley was carried out. There was a large party of 55 individuals in all, composed as follows:—

Boys : 4th Standard	...	...	6
5th	"	...	7
6th	"	...	15
7th	"	...	4 and a bugler.
Ex. 7th	"	...	11 and 1.
Ex.	"	...	3
			—
			48
Organisers	...	...	2
Leader (Mr. W. T. Hazlett)	...	...	1
Head Master and House Master	...	...	2
Visitors	...	...	2
			—
			55
			—

Each boy is asked to take

(A) Grocer's "Empty" with lid, pasted over with brown paper, containing—

(1) Clothes—better suit for Sunday, cricket shirt or warm jersey and cheap boot brush.

(2) Comb and brush, soap, towel and slippers.

(B) On his person—

(1) A Guide book.

(2) Note book, pen and pencil.

(3) Overcoat (absolutely essential).

(4) Compass, if possible.

(C) Lunch for Saturday, April 14th, in satchel.

Pocket money is to be entered in the Pocket Money Account at the end of the Guide and to be initialed by parents. Accounts must be made up and checked every day. The boys were definitely instructed not to go near the river on their own account, nor to leave the hotel without permission.

The Guide gives a clear idea of the Journey. The programme was as follows:—

Saturday, April 14th.—Peckham Rye station at 7.0 a.m. Depart Paddington 9.0 a.m. Lunch after leaving Swindon (11.5 a.m.). 1.15 p.m. Gloucester Cathedral. 3.30 p.m. Gloucester station. 4.25 p.m. arrive Ross. 5.0 p.m. tea. Bed early.

Sunday, April 15th.—11.0 a.m. Divine service. 1.0 p.m. dinner. 2.0 p.m. walk. 6.0 p.m. tea. Letters home in evening.

Monday, April 16th.—8.30 a.m. a walk. Home 5.0 p.m. for dinner.

Tuesday, April 17th.—Depart Ross station 8.15 a.m. Day out. Home 5.0 p.m. for dinner.

Wednesday, April 18th.—Day in brakes, leave 9.0 a.m. Home, dinner 7.0 p.m.

Thursday, April 19th.—Leave on a visit to Tintern. Dinner 5.0 p.m. At 6.30 p.m. visit to the Vicar of Ross.

Friday, April 20th.—Start 10 a.m. for day out in brakes. Lunch at noon. Dinner 5.0 p.m. Pack up and label luggage.

Saturday, April 21st.—Luggage finally packed. Trip by steamer up the Wye at 10 a.m. Dinner at 2 p.m. Leave Ross station 4.45 p.m. Gloucester station 5.45 p.m. Paddington 8.30 p.m. Peckham Rye 10.17 p.m.

The Guide goes on to describe Ross, with map of the district, shewing the various excursions. The description of the Railway Journey is important; we have next an account of Gloucester, with a sketch plan of the Cathedral and sketches of arches in

the four styles of English architecture. Then comes a description of Tintern Abbey, with a sketch plan and other sketches showing the chief characteristics of English architecture. There are full maps and descriptions of the excursions (scale: 1 mile to the inch). Following this are (1) "The romance of a river and a retrospect" tracing the life of past ages on its banks. (2) "Some names and their meanings," the great value of studying place names is dwelt upon: "try to get into the habit of never passing a place without trying to think of the meaning of its name." (3) Historical, scientific, and botanical notes. (4) Notes as to drawing maps in relief and how to obtain direction. A place for report and marks (100 for conduct, 40 for cleanliness, 160 for knowledge) is given; also grace, an evening hymn and a place for accounts. Prizes were offered to the boy who obtained the greatest number of marks. The written accounts of the week's work were to be brought in by 7th May, 1906.

The excursion in 1904, in the Chepstow district, on a similar plan, of 53 boys from the same school, was equally instructive. This expedition largely devoted itself to geological work, and made some interesting investigations into questions of fossils in the Forest of Dean and other places. The same school has done interesting work in the way of day excursions. An excursion to Greenwich and Woolwich was of considerable value. The boys took their lunch with them, railway cost 6d. each, and the tea cost the same sum. The preparation for this journey involved an elementary knowledge of geology and general knowledge of the London geologic basin. Train was taken at 8.45 a.m. from Peckham Rye station to Greenwich Park station. The Park and the Observatory were visited and described. The party next rambled over Blackheath and learned something of its history. Then the water spring in Westcombe Park was visited, and the party walked on to Charlton to the quarries, observing there the four geological strata.

- (1) Blackheath pebbles.
- (2) Woolwich beds.
- (3) Thanet sands.
- (4) Chalk with lime and flint.

The party reached home about 8 p.m. This was a long day for an English school journey. It was noted that when tired "the boys cover the ground with less of apparent effort when keeping step than when they saunter along in loose order." Each boy was expected to bring a hammer and satchel, small boxes for fragile shells, note book and pencil and a copy of the guide prepared at the school.

Another journey takes us along a river bank in Lancashire under the guidance of Mr. Thomas Crawshall. We are told that this type of school ramble is intended to "illustrate and enlarge" the teaching of the class room. \* The school ramble should aim at supplying first-hand and direct knowledge of a variety of geographical facts sufficient to enable the scholar to acquire the



general notions which the geographical terms imply." It provides a fund of knowledge common to all. Careful preparation for the ramble is necessary. Country with well marked features should be chosen. The ramble should be carefully studied and rehearsed by the teacher. It should not be too long, but should be capable of being walked in three hours. Each scholar should have a sketch map of the district, drawn from the Ordnance map, and a pocket compass (of which he has been taught the use). In order to test the water movement of the country and to take samples, the children should take bottles with tightly fitting corks. Photographs should be taken on the journey. The observations of the children must be tactfully kept within the designed limits. It is to be noted by the children that the direction of water flow is told by the compass and the general flow should be compared with ripples and eddies. The whole river movement should be explained. It should be shown by throwing in corks that straight rivers flow fastest in the middle, because of the friction at the side, but that at a bend the river flows most quickly on the concave side where the water is deeper and there is least friction. The examples will teach children to suspend their judgment and think. Next, pebbles should be collected and classified. The river has rounded them, the shape tells part of their life history. When a mill is reached its uses must be explained; when an old village is entered its history must be told. In one place it is found that a wall which once ran alongside the river now lies partly across the river. The river bed has changed. A winding river causes fertility. Take a sample containing sediment of sand. Where does the sand come from? That can be told from its character. Where does it go? Partly to the sea and partly to overflowed lands. The river becomes precipitous. A stone and mound of the ice age is pointed out. The historical associations of the neighbourhood are described. During the Pilgrimage of Grace the last abbot of the monastery of Whalley was executed near the abbey. The last scene of all is from the high land whence the river can be seen winding its way to the sea, the valley resembling a huge dish. This is the "river basin." Tea is taken among the ruins of Whalley Abbey and then comes an evening march of five miles home with songs. "The account would be incomplete without a passing reference to the sympathy which every school journey develops between teacher and taught. The moral result is of the highest value, it softens the relationship between master and pupil throughout the entire range of school work."

I turn now to a group of the most valuable and interesting of the London experiments—those made at the Kentish Town Road London County Council School by the Headmaster, Mr. George G. Lewis. Mr. Lewis had been trained by Mr. Cowham and adopted some of his ideas and methods.

Here I propose rapidly to trace the three varieties of outdoor work done in connexion with the school in order to show how this type of organised nature study can be brought into organic union with school-room work. First came the open-air lessons

in school time—at least one per week and more in summer. The places visited for the purpose of these lessons are:—

- (1) Parliament Fields.
- (2) Hampstead.
- (3) Highgate Woods.
- (4) Golder's Hill.
- (5) South Kensington and Jermyn Street Museums.
- (6) Zoological Gardens.

In the case of (1) and (2) the boys walk—a mile distant—and take the tram back if they choose. In these cases the party leaves the school at 2.40, and the lesson lasts from 3 to 4.30. In the cases of Highgate Woods and Golder's Hill the boys bring their lunch in the morning and the party starts at mid-day. The lesson lasts from 2 to 3.30. The train brings the boys part of the way home. Each boy in the Kentish Town Road School has from ten to twelve of these journey-lessons in the year. I print in Appendix B. Mr. Lewis' scheme of open-air lessons, but I feel compelled to mention here one important note made by him. He says, "I am a great believer in the value of trees as a Nature-study. Hardly a school in the kingdom is unable to get to a tree, and one tree alone will supply heaps of lessons. It is a big thing, and trains children to observe big things as well as small."

Of course the work varies with the district. As Mr. Lewis says, "Some schools will have quarries at hand, others will be near the sea, whilst others again may be surrounded by a wealth of plants and animal life. In any case, however, it will probably be wise to call the first two or three sets experimental. This will give a considerable amount of freedom, and preserve the teacher from criticism if one or two mistakes should be made in these earlier attempts."

The Saturday excursions are more ambitious, and, moreover, cost something in the shape of money. Being out of school hours both pupils and teachers "feel that pleasure rather than instruction should occupy the first place," and the instruction, though valuable, is usually of a disconnected nature. There are about four of these excursions in the year. The Kentish Town scholars have visited Kew Gardens and River Thames (at a cost per head of 5*d.*); Richmond Park—pond dipping (at a cost per head of 7*d.*); Epping Forest (at a cost per head of one shilling for tea and railway fare); and Greenwich and Charlton.

The third class of outdoor educational work done in connection with the Kentish Town school is the Easter Educational Trip organised by Mr. Lewis and his colleagues, Messrs. C. J. Rose and F. Wilton. The excursion lasts eight days, and Chepstow or Abergavenny are taken as the centre. The cost of the excursion is fixed at 22*s.*, but as it was found that the boys had each several shillings pocket money, an extra trip was arranged at the cost of fourteen pence. The expenditure per head was as follows:—Board and lodging 11*s.*; railway fares to Chepstow and back, 6*s.* 3*d.*; excursions to Tintern, Forest of Dean, Abergavenny, 3*s.*; extra teas on journeys, 10*d.*; admission to Tintern and Gloucester Cathedral, 5*d.*; cartage of luggage and tips, 8*d.*;

maps, guide books expenses, 6*d.*; sundries—medicine, postage, 3*d.*; balance voted to photographic souvenirs for managers, etc., 3*d.*; total, 23*s.* 2*d.*

Thirty-one boys joined the Chepstow trip. Of these twenty paid the full amount while eleven boys were helped out of a fund of £6 15*s.* contributed by managers and friends. The Guide Book placed before the boys a scheme of the journey, which in elaboration and attention to detail challenges comparison with the methods of Jena. The only omissions are the absence of any references to a tooth-brush or boots. Each boy is directed to take in his box a better suit for Sunday, extra shirt, stockings, collars, slippers and light shoes, brush and comb, soaps and towel, hammer and satchel, two tins for specimens. On the person were to be carried an overcoat (absolutely essential), if possible an old umbrella, the Guide Book, note book and pencil. The boys were recommended to wear a warm jersey, and to reserve collars for Sunday.

The start was made early on Saturday, April 14th, 1906, when the boys met Mr. Rose and Mr. Wilton at 6.0 a.m. inside the booking office at the Kentish Town Midland Station and made their way by train to Paddington—each boy carrying his box through the subway from Praed Street. Reserved carriages from Paddington at 7.30 brought the party to Chalford by 9.55 a.m. The day was spent in this country district and the train journey was resumed from Chalford in the Cotswolds at 5.53 p.m. Chepstow was reached at 8.30 p.m., and a hot supper at 9.0 ended a long exciting day. The week that followed has no day so long with the exception of Saturday, April 21st, when the start was made at 7.30 a.m. and home was not reached till after 9.30 p.m.

Mr. C. J. Rose summarised \* the results of the excursion as follows:—

“Physical improvement has, of course, been attained by eight days’ out-door life, and the brown faces of the boys and pleased remarks of parents on arrival home, testify to good results. The mental part—which the teachers tested daily by means of a *viva voce* examination—was provided by walking excursions along the banks and cliffs of the Wye and Severn, visits by rail to Tintern Abbey and the Forest of Dean, winding up with an excursion to Abergavenny and an ascent of the Sugar Loaf Mountain. Space does not permit to tell how every day was spent, but historical, geological and geographical knowledge and general nature study of plants and animals were assimilated by the children as heartily and happily as they ate their meals. Great kindness was shown to the party by ladies and gentlemen of the country. On Sunday the grounds and magnificent cliffs of Penmoel were explored, by kind permission of Mrs. Price, who also assisted with the Abergavenny trip; Mr. H. Clay, of Piercefield Park, gave permission to pass through his grounds on the way to the Wyndeliff, thus providing the boys with geographical and

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\* *Gloucester Citizen*, April 25th, 1906.

Nature-study observations. A profitable time was spent at Sedbury Park, where Colonel Marling, V.C., showed the party, among other interesting things, relics of the siege of Lady-smith, and fossil remains from the cliffs, afterwards personally conducting them to Offa's Dyke and Ledbury Cliff. The party is also indebted to Mr. George, the estate agent, for the trouble he took to make the visit agreeable. His Grace the Duke of Beaufort generously granted free admission to Chepstow Castle, while the party were extremely fortunate in having such a competent authority as Mr. Philip Baylis, Crown Surveyor of the Forest of Dean, to conduct them over the grand old ruin of Tintern. Add to this that a day was spent on the Cotswolds on the outward journey by detouring at Chalford, and nearly six hours were spent in examining the unique features of interest connected with the fair city of Gloucester and its Cathedral on the return to London, and it will be seen that the boys had an ample week's education, thanks to the energy of the organiser, Mr. G. G. Lewis, supported by Mr. C. J. Rose and Mr. Wilton, the treasurer, while Mrs. Lewis gave unobtrusive yet no less valuable help by acting as mother to the party.

"Fully to appreciate the moral results, it is almost necessary to spend the week with the boys. Acts of kindness one to another; daily converse with teachers and comrades; the necessity of helping themselves; and the partaking of pleasure without an admixture of hooliganism, did more than years of ordinary school life would do in fastening habits of good fellowship, self-reliance and unselfishness, and taught the children how to spend a holiday intelligently and happily."

The Guide Book was a great help. It contained "maps of Gloucester, Newnham, Chepstow, Forest of Dean, and a contour map of the Wye district, plan of Gloucester Cathedral, Tintern Abbey and Chepstow Castle, notes on coal, river, and valley work, stratification, rocks and hill outlines, while sketches of the fossils to be found in the coal shales and limestone rocks were given. . . . In addition a relief contour plan, showing each rise of 50 feet, was taken in a box made by the boys at the manual training centre." The Headmaster of the Tredworth school and his scholars met the party on Saturday, 21st April, at Gloucester, and took them over the town, while on the Thursday at Tintern the party met another school expedition from the Bellenden Road School in South London. It will probably be more frequent in the future for School Journeys to intersect than it is now.

The success of the 1906 excursions justified a further experiment. Messrs. Lewis, Rose and Wilton, and Mrs. Lewis, in the first week of April this year, took a party of 42 boys, including two aged seven years, to the Abergavenny and River Usk area. The journey was broken at Great Malvern and the Beacon climbed. The River Clydach was seen on Easter Monday; on the Tuesday the boys climbed the Sugar Loaf; on the Wednesday Raglan Castle was visited; on the Thursday, Table Mountain, and on the Friday Blackavon coal mines and ironworks were

explored. The journey was a success in every possible way and showed every sign of the most careful organisation.\*

Mr. Lewis,† writing of School Journeys, declares that it is better to take London boys to mountainous or fine scenery than to the sea. At Malvern, Chepstow, and Abergavenny, "the children are introduced to scenery of an entirely different kind from any to be found near our east and south coast seaside resorts." Easter and Whitsuntide "will be found preferable to the midsummer holiday. Accommodation is easier to find in the former holidays, walking and climbing is not so tiring, and the teacher's own summer holiday is not interfered with. In twelve years' experience of Easter trips the average *wet* day has not been more than one in eight, a proportion that will compare very favourably with any week in July or August. Probably Whitsuntide would be better still, where the week is available." I do not feel sure that Mr. Lewis is right on this point. No doubt the reasons he adduces are strong, but on the other hand, almost without exception on the Continent, the School Journey is taken in the summer, and there can be little doubt that there are lessons to be learnt in late summer and early autumn that can hardly be taught in any other part of the year. There appears to be no conclusive educational reason why the journey should not be held during the school session so as to enable the children to see the gathering in of one or other of the great harvests of the hay, cereals, or hops. The objections to the School Journey in the form of a walking tour instead of a series of excursions from a fixed centre are summed up by Mr. Lewis as follows:—"The risks of health, the difficulty of nursing a boy who is unwell, combined with the great amount of anxiety concerning catering and fresh lodgings each night, make such walking tours inadvisable in this country, especially when educational work of any kind is contemplated." This, however, is scarcely the case if the tour can be taken in a dry week from late June to early September. The exact course of the tour will have been followed out by the organiser and definite arrangements as to catering and lodgings made in each village and town where the organiser decides that the mid-day rest or the night is to be passed. The walking tour may be dangerous to health in the spring, amidst treacherous winds and weather, but, if well arranged, ought not to present any great difficulty of health or management in summer or early autumn.‡ School journeys of this type in fact have been carried out with great success in Derbyshire since the year 1900 by boys of the Bank Meadows School under the management of the Manchester, Salford and District Schools' Athletic Association.§ The boys in this school belong to really poor families, but the money

\* See The Guide Book and *St. Pancras Gazette* of April 12th, 1907.

† *The Teacher*, November 17th, 1906.

‡ The question of food and hygiene has particularly to be considered in autumn excursions. The use of fruit should be carefully watched, while sausages and rabbit pies are certainly to be avoided.

§ *The Teacher*, 17th November, 1906. See also Appendix A below.

difficulty is surmounted by means of the School Bank into which the boys pay small sums such as 2d. and 3d., etc., from the first week in December. Mr. Leigh, the master in charge of the journey, regards the holiday as one definitely for the poorer boys, and does not encourage those who can afford to go away with parents. Thirty-two boys and four teachers formed the expedition (which lasted one week) to the High Peak in the Summer of 1906. The boys paid 8s. 6d. each and the teachers a guinea each. The preparation for the journey is the chief difficulty to overcome. Mr. Leigh adopts the following method of preparation :

"I walk the route proposed at Whitsuntide and arrange proper places for field-talks, and find paths over the moors taking care to avoid all main roads. I arrange with landlords or landladies of hotels for the accommodation of the party and leave a menu card for them to work by. As it is a walking tour we have dinner when we arrive in the evening, and when we depart after breakfast we take a lunch with us and drink water by the way. At lunch time we have a field-talk (previously arranged) by some teacher with us. These field-talks are on limestone, sandstone, flowers by the way, fish, historical associations, etc. We got a special permit to go through Chatsworth and Haddon Hall free."

The menu card left at each inn was as follows :—

Beef or mutton	...	...	...	...	17 lbs.
Potatoes	...	...	...	...	40 lbs.
Cabbage (or peas)	...	...	...	...	20 heads.
Bread	...	...	...	...	44 lbs.
Tea	...	...	...	...	1 lb.
Sugar	...	...	...	...	6 lbs.
Rice, tapioca or sago	...	...	...	...	3 lbs.
Milk	...	...	...	...	10 quarts.
Eggs	...	...	...	...	48
Bacon or Sausages	...	...	...	...	8 lbs.
Lunch : 3 dozen large fruit pasties or 7 lbs.					
of roast for sandwiches.					
Jam	...	...	...	...	4 lbs.

It was arranged that the party should have tea, bread, bacon and eggs and jam for breakfast, beef and mutton, with two vegetables, rice, sago or bread pudding for dinner, beef or ham sandwiches, or fruit pasties for lunch. Before bed each boy was to have a cup of milk. The provisions proved ample. Each boy was supplied with a haversack and a water bottle (borrowed by the organiser).

"We issue a card to the boys the week before we start. It gives names of places we put up at each evening, so that parents may readily communicate if necessary, and also advise the boys to come in old boots, well-mended and oiled or thick with dubbin; to bring a macintosh (cyclist) or a stout umbrella; to visit the barber; to turn *off* all taps in the house we stay in, whether water is on or not." The tour in 1906 was through the loveliest part of England.

Monday.—Train to Hayfield. Walk to Chapel by way of over Kinder Scout, Mam Tor and Chimley Moors. (Sandstone.)

Tuesday.—Chapel to Castleton by way of Cowburn Hill, Lose Hill, and Winnatts. We went into Speedwell Cavern and mine. (Limestone.)

Wednesday.—Castleton to Eyam by Bradwell Moor and Eyam Moor. (Druid's Circle and Eyam Plague.)

Thursday.—Eyam to Bakewell by Calver and Chatsworth. (Birds and Fish.)

Friday.—Bakewell to Bakewell. A circular route taking in Haddon Hall and Lathkil Dale. "Wild flowers in the dale." (The story of Haddon.)

Saturday.—Bakewell to Buxton. By the dales, Monsal, Millers, Chee Tor and Ashford ("A swim in Monsal Dale"). Train home to Manchester.

It will be noticed that the expense of the trip per head is considerably less than the expense of the Chepstow trip, even after the difference in the railway fares is taken into account. The excess of eightpence a day per head in the case of the Chepstow party is easy to account for. In many ways the London boys had the advantage of their Manchester fellows. But the fact to be noticed is that a school holiday of the most delightful character in the midst of "charming scenery, beautiful hills and pleasant valleys, moor, stream and crag," in the midst, in fact, of the incomparable mountain charm of the High Peak, can be taken at a cost for six days of less than eighteenpence a day for each child, including the railway fare from Manchester. Surely similar walking tours can be taken by London boys. In order to attract such tours the Railway Companies would almost certainly grant special terms to the High Peak. Any school that could organise a Chepstow or Abergavenny expedition could do the same with respect to the Peak of Derbyshire. It is of course the natural playground of Manchester, but its spacious moors and dales will take as many London children as London, ever parsimonious in the wrong direction, will afford to send. The Northern towns have of course the additional outlets of the Yorkshire Moors, and above all the Lake district. It would take two years saving in the School Bank for a London party to go to the Lakes. The excursion would be worth two years patience—but there are many closely packed centres of population that could without difficulty arrange tours in the Lake district. The finding of money is less difficult than would at first sight appear. In the case of the Chepstow Excursion it is not found that the total cost of 23s. for the week is beyond the power as a rule of the children.

In most cases the boy himself is expected to save his pocket money, and the mother makes an allowance from her house-keeping money, whilst the father, or brothers, or friends supply the rest. A majority of the schools, however, would find this quite beyond their means, but the teacher in a school where scholars are sent to the country by the Country Holiday Fund, who wishes to reap the advantages of the long distance school journey, might be able to arrange with the Country Holiday Fund Committee to send his children to one place. He could then take lodgings near them, and arrange perhaps to have the use of the village school or club, as a day-room for his boys. By adopting this method the teacher has no financial anxiety, he need only concern himself with the educational work."

One of the most interesting school journeys that has come before me was that taken by 15 boys (varying in age from 11 to 13 years) of the St. Giles' Voluntary School, Reading, under their Headmaster, Mr. Albert Smith, and one other adult, Mr. Leslie, an expert botanist, in July, 1907. A full and illuminating account of the preparations for the journey and of the journey itself, by the Rev. R. W. Carew Hunt, Vicar of St. Giles', Reading, based on the Headmaster's very careful notes, is printed in Appendix A to this Report. The account is very detailed, and should prove most useful to schools meditating an excursion of this type. The journey had certain characteristics that may be mentioned here, so that the reader may contrast this excursion with others that I have analysed. It should be noticed that the cost per head (almost half of which, *i.e.*, 4/- was paid by each boy himself), if certain deductions for capital expenses are made, was practically the same as that of the Derbyshire walking tour undertaken by Manchester boys referred to above. But there the likeness ends, save that the Reading boys were of as poor a class as the Manchester boys. A different and more elaborate scheme was in the minds of the promoters. The educational value of the Reading expedition it would be difficult to over-rate. Physical geography, Nature-study, geology, botany, and entomology vied with history in securing the attention of the party. For six months the boys were preparing for the journey, and in consequence hardly a moment of the precious eight days was lost. This fact was due to the enthusiasm of the Headmaster, and the special knowledge of Mr. Carew Hunt, who has lived in Germany and is perfectly familiar with the German educational use of the school journey. But this school journey had an individuality of its own. Little money was spent on sleeping accommodation. "Three of our sleeping-places were in barns among straw, two in stables, one in a loft, and one on the bare boards of a disused school room." This cost (for straw, labour, etc.) under threepence per night per head. This is to some extent the German practice. The boys despite much wet weather suffered no harm. The possibility of chills was carefully guarded against by the changing of damp clothes and the rubbing down of the body. But Mr. Carew Hunt and Mr. Smith fully realised, as the German authorities have never realised, that it is undue and unnecessary fatigue that chiefly induces chills and other ailments. They therefore introduced a precaution that I have not noticed in any other school journey—a period devoted to sleep after the mid-day meal. Mr. Carew Hunt draws attention to the importance of this: "*Nota bene.*—This mid-day rest is a very important thing for the lads on a 'school journey.'" The other characteristic of the journey was the fact that with the exception of milk, butter, bread and sugar, all the food for the journey was carried by the party. This food consisted of cheese, bacon, smoked sausages, biscuits. Tea tabloids were also taken and proved most effective. On the road they paid 13s. 5d. for bread, 5s. 1d. for butter, and 7s. for milk, or less than threepence a day per head. All other food



was carried. At the start the party carried 16lbs. of cheese, 10lbs. of bacon, 16lbs. of smoked sausages, and 7lbs. of biscuits. A further supply of sausages was sent to the party three days after the start. The provisions were distributed among the various boys, whose ruck-sack (water proof) with all impedimenta packed, weighed about 4lbs.

Mr. Lewis considers that the best results on a journey "are obtained with a party of from 20 to 30 boys, supervised by three teachers . . . . The work of the teachers should be divided and specialised. One will have his time fully occupied in organising the excursion, writing to parents, securing lodgings, arranging with the railway company, and obtaining facilities for visiting places of interest. The domestic arrangements will claim the attention of another. . . . The third master might take entire charge of financial affairs—no slight matter.

. . . . Whilst the organiser and treasurer were balancing accounts and making arrangements for the next day, the house master was putting the boys to bed and turning out lights. He brought the boys to the station and saw them into the train while the treasurer was getting tickets or tipping porters."

One further note on School Journeys must be made. The question of the health of the scholars is of the first importance. No doubt it would be wise to have the children examined by the doctor the day before the start is made. Mr. Lewis, however, has found the risk of illness slight. He says:—

"One or two boys are almost certain to be sick through the effect of railway travelling or of eating too much. A wet day will find out decayed teeth and weak chests. These minor ailments can easily be dealt with. If caught in the wet, we take the earliest opportunity of giving each boy a cup of hot coffee. When they get home, clothes are changed, and spirits of camphor (on a lump of sugar) administered. Camphorated oil will generally relieve a cough and we are always prepared for one or two cases of toothache. With careful supervision accidents will be rare. During twelve years I have had to call in the aid of a doctor only twice, and I have dealt with over 300 different boys. In the one case what we feared might be scarlet fever proved to be only a congested throat; and in the other, a boy had crushed his finger in a railway carriage."

#### VI. GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

The School Journey, whether it be long or short, depends for its success on three factors; ample preparation and foresight, extending from general principles that make the journey an organic part of the school life, to the consideration of minute details relating to the physical conditions and impedimenta of the journey. Nothing can be left to chance. Every possible contingency must be provided against, and every possible advantage must be taken of the opportunities offered by a journey which has been primarily selected because of such opportunities. The School Journey, in fact, must be thought out in elaborate detail. This leads to the second factor; the selection of leaders and boys (or girls). Those responsible for the

conduct of the journey must have all the qualities required to carry the preparation into action—a grasp of the general principle coupled with a grasp of detail, human sympathy, humour and good humour, unselfishness, and infinite patience. The pupils must be selected with equal care. This is a difficult task. Perhaps the most difficult. It is necessary to have children who will mix well, who have as a rule approximately equal physical calibre (though an occasional giant is useful), who are capable of helping one another physically, mentally, and morally, who are susceptible of discipline.

Difficult cases should only accompany a journey when it is well known that the defects in such cases are absolutely out-balanced by qualities in the other boys. It is often found that so-called difficult cases develop new and fine qualities in the course of the journey, and one aim of the journey should be to deal with these cases. The last factor is the question of money. The sum per head required is not large—varying from, say, sixpence for the shortest to 25s. for the longest school journey. But it has to be remembered that the class of boy and girl that most require these journeys are least able to provide or find the money, and certainly it would be a good thing if a central charitable fund (possibly increased by a State Grant in Aid) could be created, that would sparingly supplement the sums saved by the children. For this purpose it might be possible to make collections in the richer schools for the poorer schools. If it were brought home to boys and girls of the richer class belonging to famous schools and possessed of considerable pocket money that by contributions to a central fund they would enable their poorer brothers and sisters to have a yearly holiday, it is almost certain that a very considerable sum could be raised annually for the purpose of organising School Journeys in very poor schools. But such help should, I think, be very sparingly used. Even very poor schools can, as we have seen, help themselves, and the saving by the poorest scholars for a definite purpose has an endless economic and social value. There is a good deal of waste among even the poorest; indeed much dire poverty is due to this very fact. It is found that saving is possible among the very poorest; that, by means of school banks, the poor children who went on the High Peak journey did manage to collect and save something like 8s. 6d. each in six or seven months—to collect and save between 3d. and 4d. a week. There are very few schools in London where this could not be done. The money question is not, therefore, the fundamental determining factor in a discussion of school journeys. The schoolmaster now, as always, contributes the element that determines the possibility and the success of the School Journey. If he is a chastened enthusiast, possessing both infinite patience and a broad grasp of principle, a passion for detail, and a sense of discipline, if he both feels and inspires enthusiasm, then all other things (including money) will be added unto him, and the excursion or journey, or trip, or tour, or whatever it may be called, will be a profound success; especially (and this is a matter of moment) if the

schoolmaster's wife accompanies the party as matron. Hers will prove a saving grace that will animate the whole undertaking, and save every parent from even a passing pang of fear.

In the foregoing pages only instances of Vacation Schools and various types of Holiday Classes and Journeys have been referred to. Many most interesting experiments have been made in various parts of the country of which no account is given here. I have been compelled to refer only to types of experiment. The return to nature is practically universal in modern English education. Nature study is to be found in every school, in every stage of efficiency and inefficiency. Sometimes the results are little short of astounding. To give one minute instance. In the autumn of 1905 I offered a small prize to the pupils of a little countryside school at Winstar, in Westmorland, for the best collection of flowers made in the forthcoming year. The results were, as I said, astounding. Five children went on through the whole year. Of these five the first collected and pressed and named 297 specimens, the second collected and pressed and named 223, the third and fourth respectively collected and pressed and named 107 and 104 specimens, while the youngest, aged eight years, collected, pressed and named 70 specimens of wild flowers. These results were achieved through the long-continued practice of the mistress of the school, Miss E. Moore, who takes the children for regular rambles through the summer time, and conveys to them her great and practical botanical knowledge (see *Appendix D.*) Many other such cases might be quoted. I give this little instance out of my own knowledge. The rapid increase of the movement back to Nature is shown by the vigour of voluntary effort at the present moment. The report of the Ragged School Union and Shaftesbury Society for 1906-7 shows that no less than 7,109 poor children spent a fortnight's holiday during the year at one or other of the society's seaside and country homes. In 1892 Mr. C. Arthur Pearson started a "Fresh Air Fund" for the assistance of children in the East End of London. Sir John Kirk, the Secretary of the Ragged School Union, in a recent letter to Mr. Pearson, stated that the idea had now extended throughout the United Kingdom and had been adopted by "forty of the largest centres of population." Sir John Kirk and Mr. Kessell, the honorary secretary of "Pearson's Fresh Air Fund," have made arrangements for the extension of the movement this year to Burnley, Huddersfield, Middlesbrough, Northampton, South Shields, and Stockport. Mr. Pearson bears the entire expenses of management. "Every penny subscribed goes to the children in food or fares." The day's outing for each child costs ninepence. "£8 2s. pays for a complete party of 200 with the necessary attendants."\*

It was stated at the sixty-third annual festival of the Ragged School Union and Shaftesbury Society, the Council of which works in conjunction with the Fresh Air Fund, that the Fund

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\* See the *Daily Express*, May 3rd, 1907.

enabled 101,375 children to enjoy, during the year, a day's outing in the country.

One object of this report is to bring home to all English schools some of the main educational principles underlying Vacation Schools and School Journeys, and to draw attention to the more successful experiments in these directions. The school journey and the vacation classes appear to claim a definite place in the future life of English schools, and that place can only be fully determined by careful and numerous experiments. To augment the number of such experiments, while indicating the form that they should take, has been, of course, the ultimate goal of this report. To bring such experiments into mutual relation and to make the return to nature a fundamental principle in English education can, of course, only be secured by some general superintendence of the movement by the State.

#### VII. NOTE ON FOREIGN TRAVEL.

By way of postscript some brief reference must be made to School Journeys or Educational Expeditions to foreign lands. It is obvious that excursions of this type have great value as tending to diminish narrowness of outlook or insularity of mind, and to take the bitterness out of national prejudices. Experience shows that the journeys are quite feasible and that the boys are welcomed in the new country. I will first notice a London Journey of a party of pupil teachers from the Russell Road Pupil Teachers' Centre, Custom House, London, E. Mr. G. F. Burness, the Head of the Centre, visited France at Whitsuntide 1905, with a view to arranging excursions. He had introductions to various school officials at Lille and saw the working of three Primary and two Higher Elementary schools. The Director of the largest Ecole Primaire Supérieure, in the north of France, "received me very cordially and offered to make arrangements for a visit of my pupil-teachers in the summer." This offer had to be refused as the school was in the depths of the country, but eventually further introductions enabled Mr. Burness to obtain another offer, this time from M. Thélu, Director of the Ecole Primaire Supérieure and Pensionnat of Montreuil-sur-Mer. M. Thélu wrote to Mr. Burness: "Je ne ferai pas de cela une question d'argent; mais je suis moi-même très partisan des voyages scolaires; j'en organise avec mes élèves et je serai aussi heureux de vous donner mon concours que je le suis de celui qu'on me donne dans le même cas." A visit of two weeks in August 1905 was arranged, and the children were told to save their money.

"Early in July fourteen girls and eight boys gave in their names; with Miss Crow, Miss Collins, and myself our party therefore numbered twenty-five. I secured reduced fares from the South-Eastern Railway; for 13s. 6d. return tickets from Charing Cross to Boulogne were granted us; another 1s. 6d. took us from Boulogne to Montreuil, so that the complete fare was covered by 17s. For board, etc., M. Thélu charged four francs a day (M. Gombert of Fourmes (Lille) asked only three francs a day); for

this we had three splendid meals daily; we were more than satisfied with the food and the arrangements made by M. and Mme. Thélou for our comfort. The school and its appointments were exceedingly clean; M. and Mme. Thélou were so thoughtful and kind that we immediately felt at home. We had no fixed programme, but generally we spent the mornings in long walks, M. Thélou, his son, a lad of fifteen, and some of the boys of the school usually accompanied us; in the afternoons it was a case of go-as-you-please; our boys and girls strolled about in twos and threes looking at the shops and seeking for opportunities to produce their French. In the evenings we had the use of a large room which contained a piano; you can imagine the use we made of this; impromptu concerts, games, etc., were indulged in; we tried to teach the French boys who came in our National Anthem; they were no less eager that we should learn the *Marseillaise*. "The trip was most successful; it had a noticeable effect on the study of French at the Centre." Best of all, I think, is the fact that our pupils got on splendidly with the French boys, and that misconceptions on both sides were found to be based on ignorance. M. Thélou told me that he was astonished at the way our pupils enjoyed themselves without letting liberty degenerate into licence. He said that the English boy and girl would be to him something quite different from what he had imagined them to be. What astonished him most, I think, was to see our boys and girls talking and discussing things together quite naturally."

In Easter of the same year, an experiment of a somewhat similar type was made by Mr. F. G. Harmer, the headmaster of the Leeds Church Middle Class School,\* with a number of senior scholars in the school. Three days were spent at Rouen, and then the party passed on to Honfleur, where the night was spent, then to Trouville, where another night was passed, and then on to Havre, and home next day. The children were well received. At one large school that was visited the Master considered it would be possible for English boys to go to this school and occupy it during the vacation. The results of the brief expedition were of distinct value. The idea of the French derived from the ordinary history book was definitely modified and the general outlook of the travellers was enlarged. "The lads had seen something of the historical monuments remaining in the larger Norman towns; had seen the art treasures stored in the museums; the picture galleries, and had learnt a little of the history of these things. They were particularly fascinated with the memorials of Joan of Arc." Too much was probably done in the time.

In August, 1907, a party of eight girls belonging to the VI. Form of the Roan School for Girls at Greenwich, with two friends and two mistresses in charge, spent ten days at Cherbourg. The second mistress at the Roan School is a personal friend of the Directrice of the Lycée for Girls at Cherbourg, and the latter arranged for a lady who receives boarders attending the Lycée to

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\* See the *Yorkshire Post*, March 30th and May 5th, 1905.

board the party. This lady planned and conducted excursions to the inland country and along the coast, a visit to a theatre, and to a concert, and various picnics. The cost was heavy compared with the various excursions detailed above. The lady who took charge of the party made an entirely inclusive charge of 8 francs a day for each person. The return ticket from Waterloo to Cherbourg was £1 11s. 6d. a head, so that the total cost of the excursion for each member of the party was £4 18s. 2d., or rather less than 10s. a day. The trip was most successful, and has reacted well on school work.

Some reference must be made to Miss Bunting's excursion to Paris with six London work girls in August, 1906. The party consisted of two tailoresses, two carpet sewers, an envelope bander, and an ironer from a dry cleaning establishment. The money for the excursion was raised in part by subscriptions and the party was also entertained in various friends' houses. Mademoiselle de Pratz helped Miss Bunting in the various excursions. During the week's visit the sights of Paris were with hardly an exception visited and described. The Parisian shops, of course, excited a great deal of attention, but La Sainte Chapelle and the Parc de St. Cloud called for unstinted admiration. "The statuary, pictures, and architecture of Paris," says Miss Bunting, "made a deeper impression on the imagination of the party than had been at all anticipated. . . . The statuary was greatly appreciated. . . . The fine buildings were also very impressive; the Gothic arches of the Cathedral of Notre Dame, the great dome of the Panthéon, and the highly decorated spires of the Sainte Chapelle were in striking contrast. We learned to know the look of them from different points in the city." The account of the trip written by one of the girls is extremely good, and shows that London life does not necessarily destroy the power of observation. The brief descriptions of Notre Dame and Sainte Chapelle are indeed quite striking. The girls were quick to see the weak side of social life in Paris; "what struck me as being very bad for a civilised country was making the men work on Sundays. They always seemed over-worked and tired to me. . . . I think it is a great pity they haven't a Dumb Friends' League in France. The men seem to see whose horse can wear the heaviest collars, great heavy things with fur all round, this weather." The Louvre Picture and Sculpture Gallery proved particularly attractive. "I think I could have stayed there all day. . . . we all greatly admired the Venus de Milo, many were the guesses we gave as to what she was doing." This journey was, of course, not a school journey, but it is noted as having a close relationship to that type of expedition in its organisation, preparation, carrying into effect, and educational results. All journeys are indeed school journeys if they are to answer any effective purpose whatever.

J. E. G. DE MONTMORENCY.

## APPENDIX A.

SCHOOL JOURNEY OF THE ST. GILES' VOLUNTARY SCHOOL,  
READING.*Origin.*

The Vicar of St. Giles', The Chairman of the School Managers, suggested to me at the beginning of the year, that it would be well if a "School Journey" could be organised for the summer holidays. Having lived for some years in Germany, and having studied to some extent the educational system of that country, he had become familiar with the part played by School Journeys in the education of German boys. In a letter in the "Parish Magazine," written for the purpose of enlisting the interest and help of the parish in the venture, the Vicar summed up his experience of School Journeys in the following words:—"They establish a pleasant relationship between the master and the boys; they help to widen out the minds of the lads; they certainly make the lessons in school on history, geography and natural science vastly more interesting and educative, because the intelligence of the lads is quickened by what they see for themselves when on these journeys." He was therefore anxious that we should make the experiment here. I heartily fell in with the idea, not only because I felt sure that such a journey would be of great help to the lads both physically and morally, but also because as we had made a special point of nature study in the school curriculum for some years past, I was certain that an expedition of this kind would aid the lads in the best possible way to train themselves to observe accurately. It has been truly said that "the beginning of all true work is accurate observation: the end and crown of all true work is an accuracy which observes everything, and lets nothing escape." The Vicar insisted from the first that the lads themselves should each contribute 4s. towards the expenses of the journey, and he appealed to the parish to contribute the rest. The Bishop of Oxford, who was warmly interested in the project, sent a contribution towards the sum required.

*General Preparation.*

It was suggested by the Vicar that the district we should traverse should be the Berkshire Downs in especial connection with the history of King Alfred; so in January we started special lessons in school dealing with the life and work of the great king hero, giving general ideas of the social life, and customs, and government during Saxon times, and going into details in regard to the incursions of the Danes and the effect of their settlement in England. As we were intending to visit the Vale of the White Horse, Sir Walter Scott's "Kenilworth" was chosen as the continuous reader, and the boys were encouraged to read "Tom Brown's School Days," and "The Scouring of the White Horse." The physical geography of the district was also carefully studied, and the origin and deposition of the chalk and clay deposits were especially dealt with in the nature lessons. Maps of the locality were carefully drawn, the contours inserted. Nor was the Church history of the district neglected. The earliest scenes in the Christianising of Wessex, with the life of St. Birinus, were dealt with in the lessons during some part of the time devoted to religious instruction. From his experience in Germany, the Vicar from the first laid great stress on the importance of a good selection of songs being learnt to be sung by the lads *en route*, and our later experience certainly bore out the value of this suggestion, for whenever the lads got a bit tired a song or two soon made them forget their weariness.

The actual route was next fixed. It was decided to make a circular journey going from Reading by rail to Wallingford, thence by road through Shillingford, Dorchester and Wittenham into the Vale of the White Horse through Didcot and the Hagbournes: on to Harwell, Stevenston and Wantage, along the Portway to East Challow, thence to Kingston Lisle

and so to Ashbury; thence by the Ridgeway across White Horse Hill to Blowingstone Hill and Letcombe Bassett; then home via Illey and Compton to Streatley, and back to Reading by rail.

*Special Preparation.*

A great difficulty in regard to a School Journey is the provision of sleeping accommodation. It is of immense importance to keep the expenses down, and therefore no extravagant provision for sleeping accommodation could be entertained. After the route had been carefully thought out, the Vicar wrote to the clergy of the Parishes where we proposed to sleep, asking them to be good enough to provide us with barns and clean straw, or an empty school house in which to sleep, and with only one exception, we found no difficulty, thanks to the kindness of the Vicars of those Parishes, in making the necessary arrangements. As it turned out, three of our sleeping places were in barns among straw, two in stables, one in a loft, and one on the bare boards of a disused schoolroom. It was generally found that schoolrooms were not available for the purpose. The whole party, masters and boys, slept in the same way. Another important problem is the selection of suitable boys. Fifteen of the most advanced boys were chosen, ranging in age from eleven to thirteen. In choosing from a set of boys drawn from one of the poorest districts in Reading, it was necessary to be specially careful that those who were chosen should be those who had been properly fed, and whose parents could be depended upon to see that their clothes and boots (and especially the latter) were satisfactory. We also took into consideration in our selection the question as to boys who would be most likely to be benefited by the journey, and who would be enthusiastic about it. The next important subject for consideration was the commissariat department. From the first it was decided that the staple food should be cheese, and this, with a fair supply of smoked sausages and bacon, and a plentiful supply of milk, butter and bread, was what sustained us. At the end of this report a special appendix dealing with the food supplies will be found. The cheese, biscuits, and sausages were carried by the boys in the waterproof rucksacks with which each member of the party was provided. These rucksacks were procured from Messrs. Gamage, High Holborn, the inside waterproofing being done by a lady in the parish.

On the evening before the day on which we were due to start, the Vicar invited the parents and friends of the boys, and the boys themselves, to a preliminary gathering in the schoolroom. Here they were met by several of the Managers of the School, and by Mr. Pugh, Clerk to the Reading Education Authority. Each boy had to appear in the clothes he was to wear for the journey, and to bring with him one extra shirt, two extra collars, one hairbrush and comb, one towel, bathing drawers, an extra pair of stockings or socks, a cup, saucer, plate, knife, fork and spoon. In addition to these there were provided for common use, boot brushes, blacking and laces. One cake of soap was given to each boy. The medicine chest included a bottle of New Skin, Cascara Tabloids, one bottle of Chlorodyne, one tin of Homoea, and one bottle of Armbricht's Pyrethrum. To each boy was given in addition—cheese, bacon, sausages and biscuits, making an average weight for each boy of about 4 pounds, including the weight of the ruck-sack, and the additional clothing, etc.

For purposes of natural history we carried with us two butterfly-nets, two killing-bottles, a portfolio for plants, and sundry tins for chrysalides, larvæ, insects, etc. Each boy was further provided with a pocket-book and pencil (contributed by the manager of Messrs. E. H. Smith & Sons), and a small map of Berkshire on linen. All these things were displayed by each boy, a careful inspection was made, and everything was then tidily stowed away in the ruck-sacks. The Vicar then addressed the parents and boys on the objects of the expedition, emphasising among other things the absolute necessity of unselfishness, unquestioning obedience, and careful observation on the part of the boys. He pointed out to the parents that everything which related to the health and safety of their children had



been carefully thought out, and that there need be no anxiety felt on that score. The Headmaster then said a few words in regard to the hopes that he had as to the educational results of the journey. Some of the songs for the journey were then sung by the boys, and the party adjourned to the Vicarage to be photographed. It should be added that we had the great advantage of having with us a friend of the Headmaster, Mr. Leslie, a Fellow of the Linnæan Society, familiar with the ground we were to traverse, who proved a great acquisition to the party.

*The Journey the First Day, July 27th.*

The party met at the Parish Room at the Vicarage at 7.50 for morning prayers, which were read by the Vicar, parents and friends thronging the doorway, and joining in the responses. Then after a final good-bye to the Vicar, who wished us every success, we marched off in orderly fashion with our ruck-sacks on our backs, to the G.W. Railway Station, and took the 8.38 train to Wallingford. After making several purchases at Wallingford, we took the road to Shillingford Bridge, passing the ancient castle, now in ruins, and the boys were reminded here of the part it played in the reigns of Stephen and John. Our maps were consulted as to the direction we were to take which we found partly by the help of the sun and our watches, and by means of the pocket compass. An excellent example of a river basin lay before us, which was commented on, and the botanical section of the party was soon very busy, as were also the entomologists. We soon came in sight of a splendid stone bridge, near which we lunched, and here we found the nest of a reed warbler with three newly-hatched birds and two eggs. This we examined carefully, noting how the parent birds secure their nests by means of the reeds. Here we crossed the river into Oxfordshire, singing our school songs, and keeping step to the music. Arrived at the cross roads we again used our maps and compass to find out our direction. The prominent clump of trees at the summit of Sinodun, our objective for the evening, looked quite close, and soon the tower of Dorchester Abbey came in sight. As we drew near the scene of the baptism of Cyneegils, the first important event in the Christianising of Wessex, we sat down on a bank on which grew in great profusion such specimens of Scabious and Greater Knapweed as we seldom see near Reading, and here, with our thoughts on the story of the past, we listened once more to the history of the journey of St. Birinus from Genoa to Winchester and thence to Dorchester. In Dorchester Abbey we found much to instruct and interest us, the peculiar Jesse window, the only one of its kind in existence, the 12th century glass, and leaden font, the uncovered remains of early mural decorations, the Norman doorway, the string course under the eaves with the ball flower moulding, etc. Here also we were shown the first edition of Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress." The boys were greatly interested in the story the Vicar's wife had to tell us of the Abbey. Then on we went on our way, following the course of the river, and passing by some ancient entrenchments, similar to those met later on the Downs. The next point of interest was the confluence of the Isis with the Thame. As we walked along the side of the river, our town-bred lads were much struck by the beauty of the scenery, with the woods on the further bank, and the gorgeous flowers growing along the nearer shore with Sinodun overshadowing us. Arrived at Little Wittenham, we made preparations for our evening meal. Two of the boys were told off for this special duty, whilst the rest of us collected sticks for the fire. The meal consisted of bread and butter, tea (made with Burroughs & Wellcome's Tea Tablets which served us excellently throughout the journey), a plentiful supply of milk, and a great dish of stewed plums. After a swim in the river, we settled ourselves down in the barn for the night. The villagers, especially the younger portion, were much interested by our presence, and amused themselves by peeping through the crevices in the barn, and by making some observations regarding the enjoyment of our unaccustomed bed. Few slept that night, finding evidently more satisfaction in playing small jokes on each other. Little notice was taken of this as it was the first night, and as remorse was certain to follow next day, as indeed it did.

The following is a list of plants which we found during the day :— Bugloss, Agrimony, Avena, Meadow Crane's Bill, Willow Herb (Greater), Bedstraws, Scabious (Devil's-Bit), Yarrow, Sainfoin, Meadow Sweet, Meadow Vetchling, Rest Harrow, Knapweed (Greater), Gt. Yellow Loosestrife and Purple Loosestrife.

*The Second Day, Sunday, July 28th.*

We rose early and bathed in the river just as the sun was rising. After morning prayers, and the singing of a hymn, we made a partial ascent of Sinodun in order to view the Vale of the White Horse on its south-western side. Then we set our faces towards Didcot en route for E. Hagbourne. We breakfasted on the edge of a field, and boiled the water for the tea in a large kettle which we carried in a thick black linen bag, in which was also placed our only other cooking appliance, a large frying pan. Our breakfast was prepared in a drizzling rain which made the bacon in the frying pan sizzle even more than usual. A very welcome sound, for we were very hungry, having had nothing as yet to eat save the one thick biscuit which was always served out before we made our start in the morning. After a short rest, the sky having cleared, we set out for E. Hagbourne. Here we spent a profitable time, there being an excellent Village Cross and a Church of much interest. We had dinner in a quiet spot in the bend of the brook or bourne, on the way to which we found the Hemp Nettle, Succory, and Red Bartsia. From this place we walked to the sister village of W. Hagbourne. Here, and at other places on our journey, we noticed that the scarcity of bricks was overcome by building the walls of mud scraped from the surface of the road, and then roofing the walls with thatch. These curious walls interested us very much. We also noticed here many colonies of peacock butterfly larvæ, with their glistening black spines, which we found congregating on the Lesser Stinging Nettle; and here also we saw for the first time the tiny Dwarf Mallow. We now had a bit of uninteresting country to traverse, and the boys were beginning to feel a bit tired, for they were not yet in training, nor had they had very much sleep on the previous night. However, their weariness was soon overcome by telling the leaders to set a quick step, and by singing school songs. Harwell was our resting-place for the night, and there we lodged in the old National Schoolroom. The Church has a remarkable squint, and double piscina; we had hoped to get here in time for evensong, but unfortunately the service was half an hour earlier than we had expected, so we had our evening service in the school. At night we were so thoroughly tired out that we did not repeat the mistake of the previous night. After prayers the orders were short and to the point: "No talking, plenty of sleep," and without a sound we lay down on the hard boards and were soon asleep. We were all too tired to notice or care about the cockroaches.

*The Third Day, Monday, July 29th.*

We started early on our march to Steventon. Washing facilities being few at Harwell, we hoped to strike a stream in which we could bathe. On our way we captured several marbled white butterflies, and for some distance were much amused by the efforts of a large white goat to include himself in our party, and to accompany us in our singing. However, after some stratagem, we managed to prove to him that he could not pass himself off as one of us, inasmuch as he had no ruck-sack, and so to our mingled comfort and sorrow he raced back to his home. Before reaching the village we were met by two boys who had been despatched to act as our guides by Mr. Roberts, the Schoolmaster. Mr. Roberts himself joined us on the crest of the hill, and as we swung down its other side into the village singing as we went, the village folk came to their doors wondering who we could be.

By the side of a beautiful trout stream, beyond an orchard, we lit our fire, boiled our kettle, and cooked our bacon. Then we bathed in the shallow water, and made for the village. Here the raised causeway constructed by the monks of Steventon with an eye to the floods when the

Gynge brook overflowed, and the beautiful avenue of old elms with the sweet old-world houses on either side of the road, gave us much to wonder at. The Vicar showed us the Church, and spoke of its past glories. After paying a short visit to Mr. Roberts and his school in order to thank him for his great kindness, we set out along the Gynge brook on the way to Wantage, passing through East and West Hendred. At the latter place we had our mid-day meal, and our usual time for sleep. (N.B. This mid-day rest is a very important thing for the lads on a "school journey.") Then by the use of our maps and compass we were able to find our way through bye-ways to Wantage. On our way we had an excellent chance of examining the nature of the land, as we were allowed to look down a deep well cut in the chalk. Later we came across the lynchets which are fairly common on the Down, and are considered by some to be raised beaches, and by others as marking the successive tides of agriculture.

Just before reaching Wantage we were caught in a terrific storm of rain which drenched us to the skin, but which did not damp our ardour. At Wantage we were most kindly entertained to a sumptuous tea by Dr. Loveday, and then we marched on smartly to Challow, where we were to sleep in a barn. The boys were ordered to strip, and after a good rubbing down, they changed into dry shirts and stockings, and then wrapped themselves in warm rugs and sacks borrowed from the neighbouring farmhouse.

*The Fourth Day, Tuesday, July 30th.*

Our next day's journey was to Ashbury on the western edge of the county, and this in spite of occasional thunderstorms, was perhaps the most enjoyable walk of the journey. Much of our route was along the old Roman road, and questions were encouraged about the Romans and their roads and remains. The steep scarp of the Down, especially on the White Horse Hill, was noted and commented on, and later was compared with the gradual slope to the south. Here we found Euphrasia, the Red Campion, and the Helleborine in fruit. The enthusiasm of the boys was very noticeable to-day. As we trudged over the Down in the pouring rain, one of the lads struck up "O, who will o'er the Downs so free." And later, when toiling up a steep bank holding on by roots of trees to reach what was thought to be a barrow, another youthful voice was heard to mutter as he slipped backwards, "Paths of Glory lead but to the Grave." After a long tramp we reached Ashbury two hours late, but the Vicar's welcome was none the less cordial. He provided us with a cold lunch consisting of huge quantities of cakes, sandwiches, and ginger-beer. We went next to Ashdown, past the probable scene of Alfred's victory, and walked through the wood back to our resting-place for the night. Here we found many flowers: the Enchanter's Nightshade, the large clustered Bell-flower, and the Musk Mallow. At our sleeping-place, Idstone, we met with much hospitality, the Vicar of Ashbury having placed a mission room at our disposal, and a farmer his kitchen. We slept again in a barn with a plentiful supply of straw.

*The Fifth Day, Wednesday, July 31st.*

Not so full of experience. The White Horse Hill was visited, as was also Wayland Smith's Cave. At the former we read "Tom Brown's" description of the famous hill. Later, as we looked across the vale, we tried to picture the route taken by Tresillian. From this point we were able to see the fertile Vale of the White Horse laid out before us as in a picture, and in the far distance the glinting Thames nearly at the source, with the Cotswold and the Chiltern Hills, and the beautiful village of Uffington at our feet. In Uffington Castle, a huge earthwork, the lads recited some poems, and we had a long talk about Alfred. Here we found some specimens of the Frog Orchis. Following the Ridgeway, on we went to Kingston Lisle and the Blowing Stone. Here again we read Mr. Hughes' description of the stone, and most of us were successful in blowing the stone. At night we slept at Letcombe Bassett, after evensong in the old Norman Church.

*The Sixth Day, Thursday, August 1st.*

This morning we saw for the first time what was now to become until the end of our journey a common sight, viz., strings of racehorses being taken to train on the Downs. The Vicar of Letcombe Bassett accompanied us to the Castle on the Ridgeway, and there we wished him good-bye. A large grass snake was captured to-day, and we had an excellent opportunity of examining its habits. Along the way we had an interesting chat about the orders of plants, and how to distinguish them. On reaching Scutchammon Knob, where is the barrow of Cuickelm, we had a talk about history in general and Wessex and Birinus in particular. Now we followed a sheep-track to West Ilsley, and passing through that village came upon hundreds of sheep leaving the well-known sheep fair. It was a grand sight to see how these huge flocks were handled, and one shepherd assured us that he knew every one of his four hundred. This we could easily believe, as we noticed how very indifferent the shepherds seemed to be when one flock of sheep mixed with another. At East Ilsley we stayed the night, and our bed quarters in the straw and hay were excellent. Some boys suffered to-day from various slight ills, cut feet, stings of bees, gnats, etc., and much dust arising from the frequent passage of sheep added to their discomfort.

*The Seventh Day, Friday, August 2nd.*

To-day we visited Churn Knob, passing on our way a camp of yeomanry; the lads were much interested in watching their manoeuvres. Near Churn Knob we finished our talk about St. Birinus. At Blewbury we visited the Church, and carefully examined the chained books. The boys listened carefully to an account of the early history of the English Bible. On our way to Compton, where we were to sleep for the night, our geologists came in for a fine time, and we had an interesting talk on chalk and flints. We then wended our way to Compton, our last lodging place, and here again we experienced many personal acts of kindness both from the Vicar and from the Schoolmaster.

*The Eighth Day, Saturday, August 3rd.*

After an early breakfast we set out for Streatley, and did an excellent march over the hills in very good time. From Streatley we took the train to Reading, and marched from the station to the Parish Room, where we were met by the Vicar. After a short Service we dispersed to our homes to empty our ruck-sacks.

*Conclusions and Results.*

The schoolmaster who is keen about his work often finds cause to regret the great difficulty of imparting vividness and reality to his lessons on history. But when boys are taken to the very spot on which great events were enacted, where noble lives began, or where deeds which should live in every English boy's mind were done, then even a simple unadorned school teacher may become for the nonce, in relation to his boys, a veritable Macaulay. So, when on our School journey, we found the story of the Roman conquerors, of St. Birinus, and Alfred become very real to us when told at the places connected with their history. The same thing is true in regard to natural science. The difficulty of making a boy of thirteen understand truly what a valley is, or a range of hills, or a precipice, etc., if he has never seen any of these with his bodily eyes, is very great indeed. But take him to the White Horse Hill, and show him from thence the Vale of the White Horse, and he shall no longer have much difficulty in imagining what any valley may be like. So also with nature studies, the field for contrasts and comparisons grows much wider as one traverses a great stretch of country, and when one encourages the boys to ask questions about everything that they see. If a boy found anything the name of which he did not know, he was told to bring a specimen of it. If he wished to know its name, he was told, and, if he wished its order, genus or species he was told, and if he came over and over again with the same plant, he was answered, even though the plant had been named to every individual. In this way we found even the un-

common species become familiar, and many questions as to peculiarity of structure gave rise to very instructive talks. It was, however, in regard to the bearing and conduct of the lads that the value of the journey became most apparent. One boy in particular, who had been somewhat of a puzzle to me because of his peculiarity of temperament, showed himself in glowing colours when on the journey, and thereby an understanding has been arrived at between boy and master which else might never have been. Moreover, a journey of this kind is a great test of a lad's power of sacrificing himself and his own wants for the common good of the whole party.

My firm conviction is that a School journey gives a teacher opportunities which he could not get so well in any other way for bringing out what is highest in himself, which he owes to his boys, what is best and most manly in the boys themselves. It brings the teachers and the boys into a relationship one with the other which is seldom or never possible in the ordinary routine work of school. It quickens the observant faculties of the boy, widens his horizon, tends to make him hunger and thirst after a wider and better knowledge of the world around him, rubs off his angularities, and helps to make him a better and more sociable fellow all round.

We have already begun our plans for our School journey next year.

## APPENDIX I.

## FINANCE.

A few comments may be made in regard to the accounts of the journey published below.

1. The duration of the journey was 7 nights and 7½ days.
2. The party consisted of two adults and fifteen lads.
3. The total cost was £8 16s.
4. Proportion per head was 10s. 4d.
5. The ruck-sacks were returned in perfect order, and will last for two or three School journeys to come, so this item may be taken to represent capital expenditure. We shall not need to buy any ruck-sacks next year unless there is an increase in the number of lads going on the journey.
6. It should be borne in mind that the waterproof lining of the ruck-sacks was undertaken at her own cost by a lady resident in the Parish, and is not included in the expenditure.

<i>Dr.</i>			<i>Cr.</i>		
	£	s. d.		£	s. d.
Contributions from the boys themselves	-	- 2 15 1	15 Ruck-sacks at 2s.	-	1 10 0
Donations from Parishioners and others	-	- 6 13 1	Grocery	-	1 4 7
			200 Tea tabloids	-	0 2 0
			Smoked sausages	-	1 2 4
			Railway expenses	-	1 4 2
			Expenses by the way, e.g.		
			payment for straw.		
			labour, etc.	-	1 4 5
			Butter	-	0 5 1
			Bread	-	0 13 5
			Milk	-	0 7 0
			Frying pan and kettle	-	0 1 8
			Medicine chest	-	0 4 1
			Soap, etc.	-	0 3 9
			Butterfly nets, killing		
			bottles, etc.	-	0 5 4
			Sundries	-	0 8 2
			Balance	-	0 12 2
	£9	8 2		£9	8 2

## APPENDIX II.

(a) The total amount of food carried by the lads at the start :

Cheese	-	-	-	-	-	16 lbs.
Bacon	-	-	-	-	-	10 lbs.
Sausages	-	-	-	-	-	16 lbs.
Biscuits	-	-	-	-	-	7 lbs.

N.B. A further supply of sausages was sent to the party three days after the start. Milk, butter, bread and sugar, were obtained on the way.

(b) Average amount carried by each lad :

Cheese	-	-	-	-	-	1 lb.
Bacon	-	-	-	-	-	$\frac{2}{3}$ lb.
Sausages	-	-	-	-	-	$\frac{2}{3}$ lb.
Biscuits	-	-	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{3}$ lb.

The average weight carried by each boy in his ruck-sack, including provisions, clothing, and the other accessories mentioned on an earlier page of this report, amounted to about 4lbs.

## APPENDIX B.

KENTISH TOWN ROAD LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL SCHOOL,  
SCHEME OF WORK FOR SCHOOL JOURNEYS (1907-8).

STANDARD I.—*Trees.* General outline, bark, leaves, and fruit of Oak, Lombardy Poplar, Chestnut, Plane. To be sketched and described at different seasons of the year.

*Geography.* Lessons on Lakes, Islands, Capes, Bays, Hills, and Streams. Visit to the Zoological Gardens.

STANDARD II.—*Trees.* General outline, bark, leaves, and fruit of Elm, Plane, Willow, Poplar. Oak and Chestnut to be recognised when met. All to be sketched and described at different seasons of the year.

*Geography.* Hills and their outlines, Rivers, Tributaries, Valleys, and Watersheds. Use of a Map in finding one's way. Visit to the Zoological Gardens.

STANDARD III.—*Trees.* General outline, bark, leaves, and fruit of Sycamore, Ash, Beech, Larch, Scotch Pine. (Trees taken in previous years to be recognised when met.) To be sketched and described at different seasons of the year.

*Geography.*—Work of a river in excavating valleys and making scenery. Measurement of width and depth of Fleet Brook at different points. Rocks of Hampstead Heath and the vegetation they support. Visit to the Zoological Gardens.

STANDARD IV.—Study of the trees on some part of Parliament Hill to provide data for (a) map showing position of chief trees, (b) a seasonal chart, showing state of trees at different times of the year. Soils of the Heath and their flora. Worms, moles, etc., as soil makers. Pond Dipping. Estimation of speed of a river. Visits to South Kensington Natural History Museum and the Zoological Gardens.

STANDARD V.—General study of the trees of the Heath. Soils of the Heath and the plants they support. Sheep, Haymaking, Clouds. Pond Life. Visit to South Kensington Museum and Zoological Gardens.

STANDARDS VI. & VII.—The Rocks and Scenery of Hampstead Heath. Recognition of all the Common Trees on the Heath. Tree Map of some special portion. Visit to South Kensington Museum. Visit to the Zoological Gardens.

*Note.*—Mr. Lewis in sending the scheme wrote on October 2nd, 1907, "We are extending it somewhat, for during the last five weeks I have had a class out practically every day."

## APPENDIX C.

ROYAL HILL, GREENWICH. LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL SCHOOL.  
INFANT DEPARTMENT.

SCHEME OF WORK FOR NATURE STUDY AND SCHOOL WALKS,  
1907-8.

GRADE III. (Children aged 5 years).

### *First Term. Autumn.*

Tree life in autumn—Colour of leaves—Fruits, nuts and berries. The way in which seeds are dispersed. Falling of leaves. Buds and underground stems in preparation for the winter.

Walks in Greenwich Park.

The weather. Appearance of sun and sky.

*Insects.* Great abundance in the late autumn. How flies, bees, &c., prepare for winter.

*Birds and Animals.* Flight of birds. Empty nests. How rabbits and squirrels prepare for winter.

### *Second Term.*

Appearance of snow and ice, if any.

Tree life in winter and spring. Budding of trees, unfolding of leaves, colour. Beginning of life with regard to grass and flowers, *e.g.*, snowdrop, crocus and primrose. Bulbs and how to grow them. Specimens growing in school. Germinating seeds.

Length of day and night. More sunny days as spring advances.

*Insects, Birds and Animals.* Appearance of worms and snails. Birds come back to us. Building of nests. Little lambs in fields. Baby chickens and ducks.

Farmers' work in spring. Ploughing, sowing seeds, sheep-shearing, &c.

### *Third Term.*

Abundance of leaves on trees in summer. Use of this to birds and people. Shapes of leaves.

Summer flowers—wild and garden.

Summer fruits, *e.g.*, cherry, strawberry, &c.

*Insects.* Housefly. Bees. Silkworm—life-history and work.

*Birds and Animals.* Singing of birds. Food of birds. Growth of animals, *e.g.*, sheep, cows, chickens, &c. Life-history of a frog.

Sunshine. Summer-showers. Long days and short nights.

Visit to the seaside.

Visit to a farm-house.

Walks in the park to study river and hills.

GRADE II. (children aged 6 years.)

### *September.*

Trees, flowers, fruit (in autumn).

Harvesting (outside observation). Weather observations.

A visit to the seaside.

### *October.*

An autumn walk. Autumn flowers. The spider.

Nature preparing for rest. Oak trees and acorns.

*November.*

Rabbit and robin (outdoor observation).  
Preparation for spring (ploughing and digging).  
Hips and haws. Planting of bulbs.

*December.*

A winter's walk (bareness of trees ; absence of birds).  
The neighbouring park. Ivy and holly.

*January.*

Winter tree life.

*February.*

Snowdrop. Rain and wind.

*March.*

Crocus and tulip.

*April.*

Spring—tree life—birds—primroses—earthworm and snail a sign of spring. Study of tadpoles.

*May.*

Birds and nests—the swallow—blue-bell. Study of tadpoles.

*June.*

Wild flowers brought by class.  
Study of silkworms and caterpillars.

*July.*

Summer fruits. Summer trees.

Class will keep a nature calendar, upon which is recorded day by day the children's observations of any natural or local phenomena, such as :—

1. Records of outdoor and indoor nature experiments—dates of sowing seeds, &c.
2. Weather records.
3. Observations of birds, *e.g.*, migration and first arrivals.
4. Observations of insects—appearance of butterflies, &c.
5. Records of flowers of each month and season.

## STANDARD I. (Children aged 7 years).

*First Term.*

Late Summer—to September 24th. Autumn—to December 23rd.

Weather, rising and setting of sun, length of day, to be observed each day throughout the year.

I.—*Tree and Plant life in late Summer.*

Growth of branches  
Wood.  
Foliage.  
Fruit.

II.—*Tree and Plant life in Autumn.*

Their appearance in Greenwich Park.  
Autumn colours.  
Ripe fruits—berries, nuts, &c.  
Dispersion of seeds.

III.—*How plants prepare for Winter.*

Leaf-fall.  
Buds.  
Cork.  
Evergreens.  
Underground stems.

IV.—*Insect life.*

Great abundance in late summer.  
How caterpillars, spiders, snails, bees, flies and earthworms prepare for winter



V.—*Bird life.*

What is seen in late summer—no young, many full-grown birds,  
singing and bird sounds.  
How they prepare for winter.

VI.—*Animal life.*

Deer in Greenwich Park.  
How squirrels and rabbits prepare for winter.  
How our tame pets prepare for winter.

*Second Term.*

Winter—to March 21st. Early Spring.

I.—*Tree life in Winter (and plant).*

Absence of plant life (annuals).  
Bareness of trees.

II.—*How to know London Trees in Winter.*

Arrangement of boughs and branches.  
Bark.  
Buds.

III.—*Bird and Insect life in Winter.*

Absence of moving insect life.  
Few birds—why robins and sparrows stay here.

*Early Spring. Signs of Spring.*

- (a) Tree life. How buds unfold.  
How leaves unfold.  
Flowers on trees.
- (b) Growth of bulbous plants.
- (c) Spring flowers seen in Greenwich Park.
- (d) Insect life. Appearance of ground.
- (e) Bird life. Return from warm country.  
Nesting and mating.  
Care of young.
- (f) Life in ponds and ditches—frog's eggs.
- (g) Animal life. Preparation for summer.  
Care of young.

*School Garden.*

First Term—Preparation of ground, planting bulbs.  
Second " —Planting seeds, thinning out plants.  
Third " —Weeding and watering garden.

*Third Term.*

Spring—to June 21st. Early summer.

I.—*Tree and Plant life in Summer.*

Climbing stems.  
Grasses.  
Colour of foliage.  
Work of leaves.  
Flowers in gardens and Greenwich Park.  
Growth of fruits.

II.—*Bird, Insect and Animal life.*

Their full activity.

*Practical Nature Study.*

1. Gold-fish, frog's eggs, tadpoles, caterpillars, chrysalides, silk-worms, snails, and earthworms; beans in glass cylinders, mustard and cress on wet flannel, tops of carrots and turnips in water, corn and maize seed on wet flannel, bulbs in earth, moss and glasses, and plants in pots to be reared.
2. Walks to be taken in Greenwich Park for observation.
3. Observation to be made in the playground on weather.
4. School gardens; pots in room to be taken care of by children.
5. Nature calendar and weather chart to be kept.

(Signed) E. R. DUDMAN.

F. E. VAN KEMPEN, *Head Mistress.*

## APPENDIX D.

LIST OF WILD FLOWERS, COLLECTED, NAMED, AND PRESSED,  
BY FIVE CHILDREN AT THE WINSTER NATIONAL SCHOOL.  
WESTMORLAND.

[Miss E. Moore, the Mistress of this school, has for a long time past supplemented class work by rambles which, in conjunction with work in school, have given an intimate knowledge of practical botany to a large number of children as well as an informed interest in the varied phenomena of country life. The names of the children who collected the flowers are as follows :—Fanny Chapman, Cicely Moon, Isabella Lowther, Maggie Lowther, Esther Marsden.]

Lesser Stitchwort, Sweet Briar Rose, Guelder Rose, White Rose, Pink Rose, Raspberry, Spindle Tree, Wild Jacob's Ladder, Wild Leek, Palm, Goose Grass, Wild Pretty Nancy, Common Nettle, Kesh (Cow Parsnip), Wild Sage, Double Fever-few, Bladder Campion, Centaury, Single Fever-few, Ivy-leaved Bell flower, Ivy-Leaved Toadflax, Thale Cress, Canary Creeper, Knapweed, Yellow Crosswort, Larger Ragwort, Dead Tongue, Herb-Bennet, Red and White Livelong, Wild Hop, Large-leaved Spurge, Branched Hawkweed, Wild flower like clover, Bittercress, White Meadow Vetchling, Meadow Vetchling, Pink Common Bugle, Fat Hen, Water Lily, Large Scabious, Variegated Scabious, Bog-Rush (flowering), Figwort, Red Hawthorn, Pink Yarrow, Autumnal Hawk-Bit, Marsh Orchis, White Ling, Blue Gentian, White Polygonum, Cudweed, Yellow and White Stonecrop, Campanula (bell flower), Branched Bur-reed, Large White Hempnettle, Milk Thistle, White Herb-Robert, White Hairbell, Willow, Yellow Goat's-beard (John-go-to-bed-at-noon), Red Poppy, Wild Tea Tree, Common Valerian, Gipsywort, Toadflax, Yellow Cowwheat, Lemon Mint, Mouse-ear Hawkweed, Smaller Scabious, Common Livelong, Climbing Polygonum, Mallow, Wild Aaron's Rod, Marsh Mallow, Scentless Mayweed, Brown Monkey plant, Marsh Thistle, Wood Betony, White Thistle, Purple Loose-strife, Corn parsley, Double Buttercup, Golden Saxifrage, Water Musk, Moscatel, Larch, Oxlip, Gooseberry Flower, Currant, Cuckoo or Mayflower, Bilberry, Cranberry, Garlick Mustard, Butterfly Orchis, Meadow Cranesbill, Pink Cranesbill, Shining Cranesbill, Wild Pansy, Lesser Celandine, Common Forget-me-not, Marsh Marigold or Kingcup, Boxwood, Dog's Mercury, Mistletoe, Wild Strawberry, Wild Carrot, Anemone, Wood Sorrel, pink and white, Wild Cherry, Blackthorn, White Columbine, Blue Columbine, White Hyacinth, Blue Hyacinth, Red and White Clover, Wallpennywort, Early Vetch, Tufted Vetch, Ox-eye Daisy, Jagged-leaved Cranesbill, Water-cress, Lesser Stitchwort, Twayblade, Hoary Plantain, Common Plantain, White and Blue Violets, Marsh Violet, Balsam, Rue, Wormwood, Foxglove, Barberry, Wild Phlox, Apple, Snow Berry, Pear, Spearwort, Borage, Larger Stitchwort, Wild Shamrock, Plum, Eyebright, Pignut, Sweet Woodruff, Marsh Valerian, Cinquefoil (two kinds), (True Love Knot or Herb-Paris), Mountain Flax, Blue Hairbell, White and Yellow Bedstraw, Scotch Thistle, Woody Spurge, Wild Angelica, Water Dead Nettle, Greater early Vetch, a kind of Polygonum, Groundsel, Mouse-ear Chickweed, Burdock, Plume Thistle, Common Spurge, Evergreen Alkanet, Silverweed, Ground Ivy, White Campion, Pink Campion, Rose of Sharon, Large St. John's-wort, Mountain Everlasting, Small Vetch (name unknown), Broom, Red Rattle, Mountain Globeflower, Cicely, Bramble, Holly, Yellow Rattle, Sundew, Thyme-leaved Speedwell, Pepperwort, Water Mint, White Bell-Heather, Butterwort, Lime-tree blossom, Buck or Bog-Bean, Many-headed Thistle, Yellow Pepperwort, White Pansy, Wild Honesty, Sea Clover, Cotton Flower, White Woundwort, Purple Woundwort, Wild Thyme, Hazel Flower, Snowdrop, Potato Flower, Bugloss (common), Vipers' Bugloss, Small White Scabious, Small Purple Scabious, Cowslip, Marsh Pennywort, Sawwort, Lady's fingers (Kidney vetch), Rough Hawkbit, Double Kingcup, Water Buttercup, Heckberry (birdcherry) Wild Mustard, Sycamore, White Hawthorn, Ivy-leaved Lettuce, Chestnut, Black Bryony, Pondweed,

Comfrey, white and pink, Periwinkle, Yellow Pimpernel, Scarlet Pimpernel, Ivy Flower, Dandelion, Coltsfoot, Agrimony, Wild Dead Nettle, Wild Mint, Shepherd's-purse, Yellow Vetchling, Restharrow, Chickweed, Woody Nightshade, Bell Heather, Smaller Bird's foot Trefoil, Water Dock, Goldenrod, Elderberry, Grass-of-Parnassus, Primrose, Meadowsweet, Yellow Monkey Plant, Willow-herb, Lily-of-the-Valley, Red, white, blue, and pale blue Milkwort, Barren Strawberry, White Yarrow, Common Bugle, Whin or Furze, Ragged Robin, Common Dock, Mountain Ash, Lady's-mantle, Burnet or Coffee, Bog Asphodel, Red Shank, Winter Aconite, Whitlow Grass, Yew, Ragwort, Field Lady's-mantle, Daffodil or Lent Lily, Common Sorrel, Everlasting, Smaller Sorrel, White and Blue Speedwell, Welsh Poppy, Common Heather, Common Ling, Brook-lime, June Vetch, Privet, Mezereon, Honeysuckle, St. John's-wort, Greater Bird's-foot, Lesser Trefoil, Pink Hemp Nettle, Easter Ledge, Pink Campion, Sweet scented Dark Mauve Orchis, Tormentil, Bramble, Fumitory, Figwort, Sweet Gale, White Saxifrage, Holly Flower, Weasel Snout, Water Buttercup, Yellow Mountain Pansy, Common Scurvy Grass, Common Melilot, Wall Hawkweed, Wild Marjoram, Spanish Chestnut, Wood Sanicle, Great Mullein, Annual Knawel, Wild Garlic, Hedge Mustard, White Beam Flower, Small Daisy, Bindweed, Broadleaved Mouse-ear Chickweed, Wild Parsley, Oak Flower, White Self Heal, Blue Self Heal, Juniper, Elm Flower, Marsh Pennywort.

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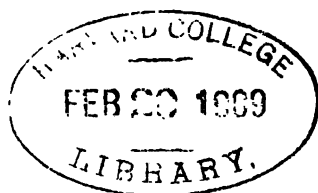
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*The Boards.*

PREFATORY NOTE TO VOLUME 22.  
OF  
SPECIAL REPORTS ON EDUCATIONAL SUBJECTS.

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The reports contained in the present volume deal with the provision made in France, Belgium, Germany and Switzerland for the care and training of young children below the age of compulsory school attendance. They were prepared for the use of the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education to whom the question of the school attendance of children below the age of five had been referred. The investigations in each country were made in accordance with a scheme drawn up by the Board's Director of Special Inquiries and Reports, and were conducted in France and Belgium by Miss Bertha Synge, and in Germany and Switzerland by Miss May and the late Mr. T. Darlington, one of His Majesty's Inspectors of Schools. This mission was the last undertaken for the Board by Mr. Darlington before his untimely death. To the Board's great regret the illness to which he finally succumbed prevented Mr. Darlington from presenting an orderly account of his observations and impressions. Miss May, who kindly undertook to prepare the report with the help of Mr. Darlington's notes as well as her own, would be the first to admit how much the report has lost by the absence of his critical judgment and abundant knowledge of Continental schools.

It is interesting to note that while in each of the four countries the earliest attempts to provide institutions of this nature were made by individuals or private associations, in all of them the pressure of economic and social developments has created a need larger than the efforts of private individuals or philanthropic agencies can satisfy. This has led to wider action on the part of public authorities, who have either aided institutions maintained by private associations, as is largely the case in Germany and in parts of Switzerland, or have themselves directly provided the schools, as in France and Belgium.

One outstanding feature common to all these systems, and retained even where the organisation has been most developed in close relationship with the general school system, is the separation of these institutions for the reception of infants from the schools for other children. It is thus possible to develop the infant school in harmony with its own special functions, and to prevent the stricter organisation of the ordinary school from casting its shadow on what should be the freest and brightest period of a child's training.

Further evidence as to the prevalence of this system is to be found in the material collected under the direction of the Froebel Society, which is printed as an appendix to this volume. That society, convinced of the advantage which would accrue to

the Infant School teacher in this country from a statement of foreign practice, appointed a special Committee to organise a scheme of inquiry. That Committee consisted of:—Miss Alice Ravenhill; Miss M. E. Findlay; Miss E. R. Murray; Miss H. Brown Smith; Miss Hermione Unwin.

In the absence of any funds to defray the expense of an inquiry on the spot the Committee had to fall back on the collection of information by means of a schedule of questions. This method of inquiry from its very nature excludes many matters on which it would be desirable to have information. There are, however, a sufficient number of points which can be satisfactorily dealt with in this manner, as the result of the inquiry shows. This is in great part due to the ready response which was made to the Society's circular, and in particular the thanks of the Froebel Society are due to:—Monsieur Bédorez, Directeur de l'Enseignement Primaire du Département de la Seine, Paris; Herr Nationalsrat F. Fritsch, Zurich; Baron von Pidoll, Vienna; Baron Kikuchi, Japan; Madame van Reenen Völter, Bergen, Holland; Miss Gunning, Amsterdam; Dr. Muir, Superintendent-General of Education, Cape Colony.

The report on the material contained in the schedules has been drawn up by Miss S. Young of the Home and Colonial College.

It is of course understood that the Board must not be taken as necessarily endorsing the opinions of the authors; the responsibility for these is theirs and theirs alone.

Office of Special Inquiries and Reports.  
December, 1908.

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# THE PROVISION MADE IN BELGIUM FOR CHILDREN UNDER COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE.

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## THE PROVISION MADE IN BELGIUM FOR CHILDREN UNDER COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE.

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### 1—CRÈCHES.

#### THE CRÈCHE SYSTEM IN BELGIUM.

The Crèche System in Belgium is not developed as it is in France, nor does there seem (with the exception of Liège) much movement in this direction.\* There is no list of crèches extant, any more than there is in England. Each institution is managed independently by philanthropic committees or societies, some receiving a grant from their own particular Commune, some entirely subsisting on subscriptions or donations. These crèches are mostly carried on in private houses adapted for the purpose; there are few new buildings—none at all in Brussels. In the suburbs there is more movement; St. Gilles has a new crèche for 100 children; Molenbeek-St.-Jean has a splendid building to provide for 150, and there are a few others. Liège is a notable exception. (*See page 11.*)

The chief characteristic of the Belgian crèche is the addition of the *Ecole-Gardienne*, which admits children up to the age of 6. There are very few crèches without this second section, as will be seen in the following pages.

With regard to the apparent indifference to the crèche system in Belgium, this will be best illustrated by naming the few towns which have crèches at all.

In Brussels there are 4 crèches, in the suburbs 12, in Liège 6; Antwerp has 4, Ghent 4, Grammont 2; Mons, Ostend, Beaumont, Chimay, Hensey, Namur, Louvain, Malines, Morlanwelz, Mauremont, Lize, Huy, Tournai, and Willebroeck have each 1. This makes the total number of crèches in Belgium 46. The number of children under three years old in 1900 was 479,488. (*Annuaire Statistique de la Belgique*, 1906.) Most of these crèches are in industrial centres, where women are obliged to go out to work. Many of them are founded by religious communities, in order to bring up children in the Catholic religion, though this remark would apply more forcibly to the private *Ecoles-Gardiennes*.

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\* For full account of crèches in France *see* page 73.

A few words written in 1906, on the occasion of the 25th anniversary of the Crèche de la Charité, illustrates this. "*Laissez venir à moi les petits enfants*" is the crèche motto. While the idea of hygiene entirely dominates the opening of new crèches in France, the religious ideal still holds sway in Belgium, except in those cases where the Commune has taken them over. "The crèche," says the above-mentioned pamphlet, "is pre-eminently a social institution. Its object is to enable workers—both men and women—to obtain the maximum wages for their work. How many poor households there are in which the struggle for existence obliges not only the father but the mother to seek remunerative work in order to enable them to bring up large families. Often the work cannot be done at home. If the mother is forcibly kept at home by her duty to the children she loses the money she might gain; and this may mean want and misery in the home. If, urged by need, she abandons her home and goes to work, what dangers surround the children; and how many little ones have perished, victims of this neglect! How can we reconcile these conflicting interests? How can we permit parents to work away from home without the children suffering? Here the crèche steps in. It is a substitute for the family hearth, a refuge for children during the day, a place where they find protection and help, where they receive material comfort, where also they receive moral and mental care, good advice, and that religious instruction so often lacking in the home. Later in life, despite possible digressions, this early teaching fills a secret want in the soul—the divine germ of regeneration. This work requires the sacrifice and devotion of a true mother. Materially and morally the crèche should supply the family with a model from every point of view. The ideal Directrice of a crèche must possess a watchfulness that never sleeps, a calm that nothing can alarm, an equability that cannot be upset, intelligence that no difficulties will surprise, energy that never flags, and self-denial that no trials will discourage."

#### INFANT MORTALITY.

But although the Belgian Communes do little for their crèches (Liège always excepted), there has been a movement the last few years to combat infant mortality by means of such institutions as "Laiteries Maternelles," "Gouttes de Lait," etc. This movement has been stimulated by the holding of the Second Congress of the "Gouttes de Lait," in the Palais des Académies, at Brussels, from September 12th-16th, 1907, under the patronage of the Prince and Princess Albert. The first Congress was held at Paris, 1905; the next will be held at Berlin in 1910.

Each year in Belgium 30,000 children under one year old die. A "Ligue Nationale belge pour la protection de l'enfance du premier âge" was formed in 1904, and at once issued their "Instructions to Mothers" (*see Appendix A*). "Consultations des Nourrissons," "Gouttes de Lait," "Laiteries Maternelles," and "Le Lait pour les Petits," all with the same object, and slightly varying rules and prices, were started all over the

country (*see Appendices B and C*). There are ten centres in Brussels and suburbs, one at Antwerp, one at Liège, and one at Hodiment.

#### CRÈCHES IN BRUSSELS.

The Commune, under the head of Public Charity, gives a grant of 10,500 francs per annum to the Crèches in Brussels. This is divided among four crèches. The Crèche Mère contains 53 beds; the Crèche de la Société Protectrice de l'Enfance, 50 beds; the Crèche de la Charité, 45 beds; and the Crèche Grimberghe, 26 beds. Total, 174 beds.

1. *The Crèche Mère* (Boulevard du Midi) is the oldest crèche in Belgium, having been founded in 1845 on the model of the crèche founded in Paris the year before. It served as a type for all the others started in the country, other large towns sending to this Royal Philanthropic Society for instructions and plans. The crèche is under medical inspection of the Commission of Hygiene in Brussels, and, though of old construction, keeps its sanitary arrangements up to date. The rooms are warmed by radiators, the food cooked on gas stoves, and the offices specially fitted after an English pattern, and worked with running water. The crèche is always full, often having 60 children ranging in age from 15 days to three years. It is absolutely free, and only open to the children of exceedingly poor mothers, who are obliged to earn their own living. The average expense per child per day is reckoned at 41 centimes. The total expenses for the year were over 6,539 francs, of which the chief items were: Salaries of nurses, 720 francs; expenses of food and clothing for 55 children, 5,500 francs. Towards this the Commune gave 1,500 francs. The King also gave a substantial grant; but this included the Hospital of the Blind and other charities which exist in the same building. This is the only crèche in Brussels that has not an Ecole-Gardienne attached.

2. *Crèche-Ecole Gardienne* (Rue t'Kint) under the Société Protectrice de l'Enfance de Belgique, was started in two small rooms in 1866 by six philanthropists, two of whom were doctors. It was managed by a Directrice with one servant, but soon outgrew its quarters and moved to larger premises. Unfortunately, quarrels took place between members of the Committee on religious questions, and one day several members went to the crèche to find it empty. Directrice, staff, and children had all gone to establish themselves in another dwelling, where the work could be carried on on other lines than those prescribed by the Committee.

Finally, a certain proportion of the crèche staff moved to its present quarters in the Rue t'Kint, where a large private house has been adapted to its requirements. It is now administered by a Council of twenty members, including a President, two Vice-Presidents, two Secretaries, two Inspectors and a Treasurer. Children are received from the age of fifteen days to three years in the crèche, which has sixty-six children, with four nurses and

a helper. At the age of three they pass on to the Ecole-Gardiennne, in the same building. The ordinary conditions of admission to the crèche are in force; the sum charged is 75 centimes a week for one child, 1 franc 20 centimes for two, and 1 franc 50 centimes a week for three, if belonging to one family. For this the children are fed, but not clothed. The crèche is open from 6 a.m. to 8 p.m. in summer and 7 a.m. to 9 p.m. in winter; it is closed on Sundays, feast-days, and other days observed as general holidays. A doctor attends the crèche, but not daily. The children have their food in the room where their cots stand. There are no *pouponnières* in the Brussels crèches, though some have a small "fold." In the Ecole-Gardiennne there are ninety children in three classes, with three teachers. They are entirely taught on the Froebel methods, specimens of their work hanging on the walls. The cost of this establishment for one year was 24,987 francs, the chief items being rent, 3,700 francs, and warming, lighting, food, and salaries of staff, 17,684 francs. Towards these expenses the Commune gave 5,000 francs, the Province 1,563 francs, the National Bank 200 francs, while the parents' payments amounted to 3,024 francs.

3. *Crèche-Ecole Gardiennne de la Charité* (Rue du Beguinage) was founded in 1881, and kept its twenty-fifth anniversary last year, 1906. It was the direct outcome of the last crèche, for when the members of the Société Protectrice de l'Enfance differed seriously among themselves on the subject of religious teaching the managing staff took the children and started in other premises. This became the nucleus of the Crèche de la Charité, which has ever since been carried on under Catholic auspices and has grown beyond all limit. Over 550 children daily attend this establishment, which is divided into five sections. The first is the crèche proper, for babies from fifteen days to eighteen months, for which several rooms are reserved at the top of the house (which has been adapted from a private residence, every bit of available space being utilised). There are several rooms with cots and small chairs; cooking has to be done in a passage, and the *flor d'avoine* on which the babies are fed is warmed up in their sleeping room. Those of a year old are in a larger room, with toys and playthings. The second section of children, from eighteen months to three years, spend their time in the garden when weather permits, or in a large playground on the storey below. Here there is a sort of single *pouponnière*, which is used for the children's meals. After their food they are put to sleep in hammocks specially constructed for this crèche by the Directrice, Mme. Ursule Van Ingelgem. These hammocks are made of canvas stretched across long bars of iron (gas piping), painted pale blue. When not being used, they are ingeniously folded up close against the wall, in batches of five and seven, so that they take up no room. Seventeen of these folding hammocks, fitted and painted, cost 350 francs. They were made by a local locksmith.

The third section is composed of children from three to four.

who form the Ecole-Gardienne. They are taught, in a small class-room, songs, prayers, games, and Froebel manual work. All children from three to six are fed daily on meat, potatoes, and vegetables, having also slices of bread and jam before they go home. The accommodation is very insufficient for the large numbers present. The fourth section takes children from four to five and a half, who learn the first elements of reading and writing, as well as catechism, arithmetic, recitation, singing, and gymnastics. The fifth section takes children from five and a half to seven.

In 1883 a primary school was started for boys and girls leaving the fifth section of the Crèche Ecole-Gardienne. It was adopted by the Commune in 1893, and now contains 400 children. The whole establishment is under the Directrice, Mme. Van Ingelgem, who keeps the children from babyhood to the age of fourteen under her protection, bringing them all up in the Catholic religion. A large Committee of ladies ably support her, and a Sub-Committee of young girls has lately been added to help in the work of collecting subscriptions. Those who manage to get ten subscriptions of 5 francs each secure the right of calling a cot in the crèche by their own name. So devotedly do these ladies work that every year on St. Nicholas Day every child in the crèche is given a complete outfit, representing an annual outlay of several thousand francs. Most of the parents contribute something. The cost for one child under three, including feeding and part clothing, is 15 centimes a day, for children over three, 10 centimes a day, for children bringing their own food 10 centimes a week.

In 1905 the total expenditure was 30,413 francs, towards which the parents' contribution amounted to 4,000 francs and grants from Commune and Province to 6,000 francs, leaving two-thirds to private enterprise.

4. *Crèche de Grimberghe* (Place de la Douane) has an average of thirty children. The establishment is under the "Société Protectrice des Enfants Martyrs," and includes a refuge for 125 children and a Laiterie Maternelle. The building, which faces the Quay, has been adapted for this purpose, and the space is inadequate for the children. The crèche is managed by a Directrice and two nurses. The children are undressed, washed, and re-clothed every morning on arrival at the crèche. There is a Committee of twelve ladies, who undertake to supply the crèche with all necessary garments, and who in one year supplied no less than 505 garments. The crèche is worked on the ordinary lines of management; it is open from six to eight daily. It is free to most mothers, but the Directrice may, after due inquiry, demand 10 centimes a day if she thinks necessary. A doctor visits the crèche daily. Up to the age of six months children are fed solely on milk; the amount of nourishment is regulated by the doctor. The elder children rest after their mid-day meal on canvas hammocks stretched across narrow piping. While they rest the *femmes de service* take their dinner and clean the crèche. There is no garden attached to the crèche. "*La crèche ne doit jamais sentir mauvais*" was among the rules

printed in a special pamphlet for the use of the crèche. This crèche works in connection with the Laiterie Maternelle which was started in 1897, the first in Belgium. It supplies the crèche with the very purest milk—always sterilised—and sells it to mothers in specially stoppered bottles holding 50 to 250 grammes at the rate of 30 centimes the litre, or 15 centimes the half-litre.

#### CRÈCHE-ÉCOLE-GARDIENNE, ST. GILLES.

The population of this suburb is 60,086 (1905).

It has one crèche, with 100 beds, and will soon have accommodation for another 100 children in the Ecole-Gardienne which is in the same magnificent building. The Commune gives 5,000 francs a year towards expenses, to which is added the parents' fees, and a Committee of Management collects the rest. The crèche with 25 beds was founded in 1870 by a few charitable people. It was intended for children of all denominations; but in 1894 both building and organisation were recognised as defective, and the Commune decided to build a new crèche in a more central position for the working population of St. Gilles. Plans were prepared, and, under the Architect of the Commune, the building was completed on the most modern and approved lines, at great cost. A large and beautifully planted garden is attached.

Throughout the length of the building runs a long corridor, on one side of which doors lead into the play-room, dining-room, and two class-rooms for the Ecole-Gardienne; on the other side into bath-room, kitchens, waiting-rooms, cloak-rooms, etc. On the floor above this is a large room, with 70 cots arranged round the three sides of the walls, and accommodation for 30 older children, from two to three, to rest during part of the day. At the end of each cot is a small chair, and a card above each cot gives an account of the donor and small occupant. A small room leading out of this large nursery, but also accessible from the outside, is set apart for nursing mothers to feed their babies daily. In the centre of the large nursery is a table with chairs, where the *Berecuses* attend to the wants of the small babies, feed them, and change their linen. The room was quite airy and fresh, and sunshine was streaming in. At the fourth side of the room were stretched canvases on iron frames, covered with movable sheets of mackintosh, where the older children rest at mid-day. On the opposite side of the corridor were the Directrice's rooms, linen room, etc.

*Conditions of Admission.*—Children are admitted from a fortnight old to three years in the crèche, and pass on to the Ecole Gardienne, where they are taught at present in two class-rooms, one for those from three to four, and the other for those from four to five. They are not kept after the age of five. Every child whose parents live in the Commune can be admitted if there is room. On admission the parents must fill up a paper stating



the name of the child, their own profession and home address, also a certificate of birth and a voucher that the child has been vaccinated. The crèche admits neither sick children nor children from an infected house. They cannot be definitely admitted until they have been visited by a crèche doctor.

Payment is required weekly. It is at the rate of 60 centimes per child, 45 centimes each for two children, and 30 centimes for each of three children of a family. The crèche also receives children paid for by the Charity Bureau. In these cases the parents must make a statement when the child is admitted, and produce the certificate from the Charity Bureau. The crèche is open every day in the year except Sundays and feast-days, and other days arranged by the Executive Committee. It is open from 6.30 a.m. from May 1st to August 31st, and 7 a.m. from September 1st to April 30th. It is closed every evening at 8 p.m.

*The Staff* consists of a Directrice, two teachers, nurses and *femmes de service*, a cook, and a concierge. The staff is appointed and discharged by the Executive Committee, which also fixes the salaries. The whole establishment—except the concierge, who receives orders direct from the Committee—is under the Directrice. The Directrice is responsible for all accidents which may happen to children during their stay at the crèche. She has to keep registers of attendance, of household expenses, linen, clothes, etc. She can buy nothing without leave from the Executive Committee, neither can she absent herself without their permission. The Directrice, teachers, and nurses are lodged and boarded at the expense of the crèche.

To the *dames patronnesses* are attributed the usual duties; but the *dames patronnesses* in Brussels do not seem quite so assiduous in visiting as those who superintend the Paris crèches. The whole staff are called on to fulfil their duties with "tact, sweetness, zeal, and intelligence"; they must love the children, and inspire their love in return; they must treat them with the care and attention claimed by their tender age, at the same time maintaining order and discipline. Corporal punishment is strictly forbidden.

The concierge cleans windows, vestibules, court and classrooms, keeps the basement, garden, committee-rooms, and secretariat, as well as being responsible for the lighting and warming of the establishment.

*Hygiene.*—Three doctors are attached to the crèche-école-gardienne; but there is less medical supervision, on the whole, in the Belgian crèches than in the French. They have to certify that the most scrupulous cleanliness has been observed, that the floors are well washed and the windows opened, that the beds have been aired and dried, the offices disinfected, and the baby-linen is irreproachable. To this end it is requested that every child shall be washed before being brought to the crèche. Parents who neglect to bring their babies perfectly clean are warned by the Directrice; and, if they still refuse to follow her instructions, they are requested to remove the child. Every

child is re-dressed in crèche clothes on arrival, and, if necessary, washed. Each has its own sponge, basin, handkerchief, cup, plate, and spoon. When the weather permits, a bath is given to each child at least once a week, under the superintendence of the Directrice. The ventilation of the rooms must be uniform, without children being exposed to draughts. They should be kept at a temperature of 18 deg. Cent. Children should be kept out of doors whenever it is fine enough. They are all fed at the crèche-école-gardiennne. Neither flowers nor painted toys are allowed in the rooms used by the children. This is the menu for one week for children over two\* :—

Monday.—11.15. Soup, with meat, potatoes, rice, vegetables.  
3.15. Boiled rice and milk.

Tuesday.—11.15. Soup without meat, potatoes, rice, vegetables.  
3.15. Rice and milk.

Wednesday.—11.15. Soup, with meat, potatoes, rice, vegetables.  
3.15. Rice and milk.

Thursday.—11.15. Soup without meat, potatoes, rice, vegetables.  
3.15. Potatoes, bread, beer.

Friday.—Same as Thursday.

Saturday.—11.15. Soup, with meat, potatoes, rice, vegetables.  
3.15. Semolina and milk.

Every day at 5.30 bread and jam are given, and milk and water. During the day thirsty children are given a decoction of herb tea and liquorice to drink.

The following rules are printed for the Staff of this crèche :—

“Never hasten the little ones unduly; let them crawl on the floor and get up without help when they are able. Never disturb a child asleep. Cover the child lightly. Raise its head slightly in bed. Never let it sit up long in its chair. Do not restrain a child's movements by its clothes. Scold rarely, and always act with the greatest tenderness. Never raise a child by one arm. Never put a child on your lap and expose it to the laughter of others. Never excite it to anger or tears. In case of convulsions, remove it at once from other children and inform doctor.”

*Time Table.*—The children who pass from Crèche to Ecole-Gardiennne observe the following time-table :—

Monday.—9-11. Singing, beads, recreation, third gift, talk.  
11.30-3. Weaving, singing, folding, action games.

Tuesday.—9-11. Singing, bricks, recreation, talk, first gift.  
11.30-3. Plaiting, singing, 4th gift, action songs.

Wednesday.—9-11. Singing, second gift, recreation, beads, poetry.

11.30-3. Weaving, singing, sticks, action songs.

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\* The Directrice told me she gave less potatoes than prescribed in menu.

Thursday.—9-11. Singing, third gift, recreation, plaiting, talk.

11.30-3. Singing, bricks, action songs.

Friday.—9-11. Singing, fourth gift, recreation, beads, talk.

11.30-3. Sticks, song, first gift, action songs.

Saturday.—9-11. Songs, bricks, recreations, plaiting, poetry.

11.30-3. Folding, singing, talk.

All the children attending the Ecole-Gardienne have a rest after their 11.15 meal. For this purpose there are long benches the whole way round a good-sized room, with wooden backs, and here the children lounge and sleep, in uncomfortable positions. A teacher sits in the room, which is darkened. The arrangement of the benches is not to be commended, though the rest hour is undoubtedly good. A better arrangement for resting the children attending the Ecoles-Gardiennes is given on page 6.

At St. Nicholas large presents of clothes, toys and bonbons are made to children of the Crèche-Ecole Gardienne, especially to those who have been found most deserving.

The cost per child at this establishment was given me by the Treasurer as 62 centimes per head per day. The accounts are not forthcoming.

#### CRÈCHE-ECOLE GARDIENNE D'IXELLES.

Population 70,649 in 1905.

In inadequate quarters this Crèche-Ecole-Gardienne is carried on vigorously. The average attendance for 1906 at the crèche was 42 per day; at the école-gardienne 87 per day.

The total expenses for the year were 21,291 francs, towards which the Province contributed 608 francs, the Commune 4,000 francs, the King 300 francs, mothers' payments amounted to 2,307 francs, and subscriptions to 2,748 francs.

The Staff consists of a Directrice (newly appointed from Liège), two teachers, three nurses, three servants, and a *femme de service*. Two doctors give their services free. A committee of ladies devote themselves to the children, having collected no less than 2,171 francs to spend on clothes and toys for the children at St. Nicholas.

#### CRÈCHES AT LIÈGE.

In 1847 M. Abry, then Controller of the Liège Hospitals, drew the attention of the Communal Administration to the utility of crèches. He suggested turning part of an old convent into a crèche, and the Administration accepted his offer, appropriating for this purpose several rooms of the disused convent. M. Abry collected the necessary funds, and in 1849 the first crèche was opened at Liège, with accommodation for fifty babies.

In 1859 another generous philanthropist resolved to found a second crèche, in another part of the town. He bought some land and built a new crèche, to hold fifty beds, which was opened in 1861.

A third crèche was built in 1873 by private enterprise. But in 1879 the situation changed, and the Commune undertook the charge of the crèches. A fourth was built under Communal direction in 1893, containing 100 beds, and two more have been opened in 1906 and 1907, containing respectively 100 and fifty beds. These crèches, frequented by some 500 children, cost the Commune annually 55,000 francs.

They are open from 5.30 a.m. in summer and 6 in winter to 8 p.m. They are entirely free, and children can remain to the age of three. A committee of ladies, appointed by the Communal Administration, visit the crèches constantly and contribute greatly towards their success.

At the head of each crèche is a Directrice; her salary begins at 1,100 francs, after five years of service it is increased to 1,300 francs, and after ten years to 1,500 francs. In addition to this she has board and lodging, light and firing. A doctor is attached to each crèche; his salary begins at 300 francs, after five years it is raised to 400 francs, after ten years to 500 francs, and after fifteen years to 600 francs. The *berceuses* and other workers at the crèches receive 600 francs, rising to 750 francs after fifteen years' service.

The general expenses for 1907 amounted to 89,200 francs. One Directrice-Générale, 2,800 francs; six Directrices, 7,950 francs; six doctors, 3,100 francs; *berceuses* and *femme de services*, 32,850 francs; one chauffeur, 500 francs; other expenses, including food, washing, upkeep of furniture and building, 42,000 francs.

This does not include the initial expense of linen or clothes worn by the children during their stay at the crèche. Every two or three years the Commune votes 3,000 or 4,000 francs for this purpose.

The building of the Communal crèche, holding 100 children, cost 139,895 francs, the site 55,000 francs, and the warming apparatus 25,000 francs.

## II.—ÉCOLES-GARDIENNES, OR JARDINS D'ENFANTS.

### GENERAL REMARKS.

The first official recognition of these schools in Belgium dates from 1833, when certain rules were laid down fixing the age of admission for children between two and six, and regulating their instruction. The movement grew rapidly throughout the country. By the year 1881 there were 708 Écoles-Gardiennes, containing 56,408 children. By 1900 the number had increased to 2,310 schools, containing 218,702 children. In 1905 there were 2,771 schools, containing 258,149 children. (In *Appendix D* will be found a table giving the distribution of these schools throughout Belgium, and in *Appendix F* figures giving their total cost.) The *Annuaire Statistique de la Belgique* for 1906 gives the number of children between three and six in 1900 as 446,134; so that, allowing for growth of population, it may be

stated roughly that Belgium has school accommodation for one-half of her children between three and six years old.

These Ecoles-Gardiennes, while receiving grants from the State and being under State inspection, are to a large extent built and managed by the Communes. They are classified under three different heads: Communal Schools; Schools adopted by the Communes; and Private Schools, not adopted by Communes (but which fulfil the necessary conditions for adoption), receiving State grants. In order to receive these grants these Ecoles-Gardiennes must be open to Government inspection, keep a capable teaching staff, receive children of the poor between the ages of three and six free, have suitable accommodation and furniture, and in Communes under 1,000 inhabitants have a regular attendance of 20 children. For schools complying with these regulations the State grant is given according to the following rates. In Communes under 1,000 inhabitants they receive 10 francs for each child. Ecoles-Gardiennes containing twenty to twenty-five children receive 250 francs for one class and 225 francs for each additional class. Those with thirty-six to fifty-three children receive 300 francs for one class, and 275 francs for each additional class. Those with over 51 children receive 350 francs for one class and 325 francs for every additional class. To bring these up to some standard of efficiency a new code of rules was issued in 1890 by the Minister of Public Instruction "to aid the Communes in their task of organising the Ecoles-Gardiennes." It forms the basis to-day for the organisation of all the schools in the country, though a large number of Communes have issued their own rules and regulations.

As the whole modern scheme of the Ecoles-Gardiennes is given later, it is only necessary briefly to sketch the Ministerial propaganda of 1890. The École-Gardienne admits children from three to six. It seeks to prepare them for the future by bestowing on them that care which is required for their physical, mental, and moral development. It strives, above all, to enable them to acquire habits of cleanliness, order, politeness, and obedience; to encourage spontaneity; to inspire them with a love of right and hatred of evil. In a word, to surround them with all those good influences which should be included in an intelligent mother's training. The child is not called to the École-Gardienne to remain impassive during the long hours, to sit still during lessons, to listen mechanically to remonstrances and exhortations. It must move about; it must work, not only its limbs, but its faculties. This is activity. The École-Gardienne must not aim merely at imitation or unconscious reproduction of all that is done; it must be creative. That which it teaches must not arise from an ignorant appropriation of the knowledge of others, of a laborious assimilation of things or words monotonously repeated: it should be an acquisition resulting from the observations, investigations, and little practical experiences. This is spontaneous activity. Games, pursuits, and work should not be

the fulfilment of a sharp command, of an imperious order, of an invitation admitting no reply. They should be as much as possible, the thing which is wanted, demanded, desired. This is free activity. But, as this child-life has need of outward influence to aid its growth, it is for the teacher of the *Ecole-Gardiennne* to supply this by directing this spontaneous and free activity. She will accomplish nothing if she carries out her methods mechanically, and follows a monotonous routine both in work and play. She must be full of the spirit of the system of infant training, so that she may vary the means at her disposal, and so awaken the child's mind by opening it to all wholesome impressions and fine feelings. To awaken with moderation and direct wisely the activity of the pupil, leaving it spontaneity and liberty, such is the high ideal of the true teacher of *Ecoles-Gardiennes*. The programme should include: bodily exercises and gymnastic games; training in thoughtfulness, speech and learning by heart, in order to awaken the spirit of research and observation, to give birth to simple ideas on the subject of Nature and life and the first notions of duty, in order gradually to enable the child to express itself with ease and clearness. The training will include singing learnt by ear, and manual occupations. The Communal Council can add reading, writing, and arithmetic for the older children if they wish. No single lesson must last over half an hour; there must be constant variety, that children may be occupied without constraint or fatigue. The Communal Council will decide about religious instruction, whether it be Catholic, Protestant, or Jewish. There will be special inspection for religious instruction. (There is no religious instruction, only "moral teaching," in the Communal schools).

The Directrice of the school will keep registers with the names of the children, attendance, administrative correspondence, inventories of furniture, etc. She must see that the building is kept clean and well ventilated, and that the temperature is kept at 14 to 16 deg. Cent. in cold weather. The teaching materials must include: Pictures, collections of Froebel gifts, slates, coloured paper, etc. The Directrice must arrange everything tastefully, to inspire love of the beautiful in her pupils.

With regard to the games for developing the children's physical strength, they should be played out of doors whenever weather permits. They should consist of various movements of fingers, hands, arms, legs, and head; marching, jumping, and running; games to imitate labour and trade; all inspired, encouraged, and watched by the teacher.

Training of thoughtfulness, pronunciation, etc. This must come into every lesson and game throughout the day. Sometimes by means of special little stories about the family, food, clothes, houses; on domestic animals, birds, fishes, insects; on the vegetables in the garden, trees of the orchard, the flowers of the fields; on grains; talks about the seasons, etc. To-day it may be a story of courage; to-morrow a piece of poetry, new and full of feeling. Always it will be impressive words, as from a

mother who feels and loves, who slips some helpful thought into the mind, or right feeling into the heart, at the same time helping the child to express and translate its own impressions, and the result of its observations.

There is a long account of the Froebel system in the code issued by the State. To oblige most of the parents, the teacher of the Ecole-Gardienne has often to teach reading and writing to her most advanced children. Half an hour a day should be enough for them. In arithmetic they will have learnt the first ten numbers by means of little sticks, cubes, etc. These can be taken up to 20; but it will be well to resist the temptation of taking the children on too far, and so losing the character of the Ecole-Gardienne.

At the time of this circular the schools were entirely known as Ecoles-Gardiennes. They are now often called "Jardins d'Enfants." There is no practical working difference between the two, although the latter have been described as "Les Ecoles-Gardiennes perfectionnées."

#### TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR ECOLES GARDIENNES.

A special examination for teachers of these schools was instituted in 1898, and holds good to-day (*see Appendix H*). In this year the Minister of Public Instruction issued the following circular:—

"I have much pleasure in sending you the new rules for the examination of teachers of Ecoles-Gardiennes, instituted by Royal decree, June 17th, 1898. This examination will take place in September, 1899, for the first time. It will include a preliminary test, followed by a Froebelian course at the Training College, and a final test of an essentially practical nature. Those only will be admitted to the Froebelian course and to the final test who have succeeded in the preliminary. The final test will be exclusively on educational methods. The training course will last three weeks; it will chiefly deal with the theory of education and its application to Froebel methods. At the time of their entrance and the examination the candidates must state whether they wish to be questioned on religion and *morale*, or on *morale* only. In the first case they must submit to an examination conducted by an examiner chosen by the head of that denomination to which they may belong, and their certificate will state that this examination has been satisfactory. The candidates taking only *morale* will be questioned by the Committee."

The following are the rules concerning examinations for *certificats de capacité* to be passed by all candidates wishing to teach in Belgian Ecoles-Gardiennes, whether Communal or otherwise, as issued by the Minister of Public Instruction. They strike one as being somewhat extensive for the teachers of children under six years old:—

"All candidates must be seventeen, and healthy. Two Committees will undertake the preliminary tests—one dealing with those candidates who speak Flemish or German, the other with

those who wish to be examined in French. Each Committee is composed of an honorary Inspector of Primary Education, who fulfils the duties of President, and of three members chosen from the staff of the Communal Froebelian Training Colleges. The preliminary examination deals chiefly with *la langue maternelle*."

The general idea underlying the programme is this—that the *certificat de capacité* should supply a guarantee that she who possesses it possesses also a general education as broad and substantial as that possessed by candidates for primary schools; knowledge, both clear and precise, of moral precepts and "*savoir-faire*" included in the programme of 1885 for training schools; some knowledge of general hygiene and school hygiene; knowledge derived from principles and rules of general educational methods, which may serve as a basis and guide for infant education; and, finally, some practical skill in the teaching of exercises and games, as set forth in the programme of Jardins d'Enfants, August, 1890 (*see Appendix K*).

#### COMMUNAL JARDINS D'ENFANTS IN BRUSSELS.

*Brussels* has fourteen Jardins d'Enfants, free, and not compulsory, containing 3,324 children, while there are twenty-five Ecoles-Gardiennes distributed among the ten suburbs. These are all free, and receive grants from State and Commune. In addition to these, there are thirty-five Ecoles-Gardiennes in the town and suburbs in private hands, either adopted or subsidised by the Commune, and twenty private paying schools, receiving no grant; so that in all there are in Brussels nearly 100 schools for children between three and six. Their object and organisation was thus set forth by the Commune of Brussels in 1902:—

"It is of supreme importance for a town which includes a considerable population of the working classes to have a thorough organisation of Jardins d'Enfants. The Jardin d'Enfants is the foundation of the primary school; without it popular education lacks a basis, and is defective from the beginning. When the primary school is not preceded by the Jardin d'Enfants, it receives only too often a crowd of weakly children, stunted, coarse, brought up in dirty basements, and already corrupted by wandering about the streets.

"The Jardin d'Enfants should supplement both materially and intellectually the inadequacy of those parents who are incapable of watching over the early development, both moral and physical, of their young children. It should help large families, and this help would be much more efficacious than the slender allowances granted by the Charity Bureau. But, so that the Jardin d'Enfants should successfully fulfil its calling, it must be organised according to the Froebel method; that is to say, it ought to be in a place where intelligence, moral sense, and physical powers can be cultivated rationally, and where a close observation of each child is possible. The Jardin d'Enfants has, therefore, to fulfil part of a mother's duty. It is not a school in the



ordinary sense of the word ; it is not for the purpose of teaching but of developing the intelligence of children by calling out their creative faculties and giving them impressions that they could not receive in the sordid and barren neighbourhoods from which they come. By a graduated series of games, exercises, occupations, of talks, both moral and instructive, the children are led to notice, to understand rightly, to acquire correct ideas, to interest themselves in their surroundings ; they are led to observe, to express themselves clearly, and to develop their inventive and creative faculties ; so that it is possible to show them the necessity for order and cleanliness, and to give them a taste for work and love of right, the triple basis of all æsthetic and moral education. The occupations in the *Jardin d'Enfants* should not be chosen for their value as acquirements, but rather for the means they offer of leading children to observe, to think, and to express their ideas. Children must be drawn out of the intellectual stupor produced by ignorance. Any excitement produced by artificial means must be carefully avoided ; it is not by tickling a child one should produce laughter. Joy, like curiosity, should be the result of natural expansion of the whole being, happiness in living and interest in the novelty of outside things.

"The '*Jardinière*' should try to overcome the natural egoism of the child by giving it opportunities of being kind and good-natured to its companions ; at the same time she will be able to transform the rude ways that it brings from the streets to pleasant and courteous manners. The site should be chosen with a view to the children spending the greater part of the day out of doors during the fine weather, for the most important point of all is to keep the children in vigorous health, so that they may be able to resist the unwholesome influences to which they are too often exposed in home life. To ensure this, scrupulous cleanliness is essential, and parents must be sternly ordered to change the children's linen at least twice a week.

"In order that the *Jardin d'Enfants* should supply the primary school with well-prepared children, the *Jardinières* should be thoroughly permeated with the spirit of the Froebel methods, so as not to make a confused compromise between the *Jardin d'Enfants* and the school proper. An intelligent application of this method implies a certain amount of culture ; it is not, therefore, too much to ask of the *Jardinière* that she shall possess the diploma of the primary teacher and that she shall have successfully followed a course of training in Froebel methods.

"The *Jardins* should not admit too large a number of children, they will be better scattered about the town, so that the children should not have too far to go. The regulations of the *Jardins d'Enfants* should be very humane, but not enervating ; the children must be taught to rely on themselves, to bear with little inconveniences caused by their own folly or awkwardness ; to manage for themselves. In all these things they should be led with a gentle but firm hand. The pupils of the upper division should work as much as possible for those in the lower classes

so as to acquire the feeling of sympathy and brotherhood that should unite all mankind. They will thus feel the satisfaction of being useful, which all children love; they will taste the joy of work and of devoting themselves to those who are weaker than themselves, a feeling which is at the root of the great law of love and charity, to which we attribute the superiority of modern society to that of ancient times. With the system of small schools, it will no longer be necessary to place a Directrice at the head of each Jardin; the principal *Jardinière* will act as *Jardinière-en-Chef*; she will supervise the whole establishment, maintain discipline among the teaching staff, and arrange the time-table.

"The educational functions will be undertaken by an Inspectrice; she will be responsible for the occupations, for the observation and strict application of the Froebel system. It is unnecessary to add that discipline, cleanliness, and the upkeep of material do not come under her control.

"At intervals decided by the *Echevin*, the Inspectrice will summon the teaching staff to a conference, when model '*causeries*' will be given, and types of exercises performed suitable for the Jardins d'Enfants.

"We hope in this way to keep up a constant spirit of progress among our *Jardinières*, and to prevent them from falling into a mechanical routine of instruction. We shall institute a School Committee for each Jardin. For these we hope to count upon the help of the ladies of Brussels. How can they better employ their time and natural charity than by watching over the education of these poor children? How often will it be in their power to give useful advice to the mothers, and soften the sufferings of ignorance! They should be our fellow-workers in the great scheme of civilisation that we are following; it is above all they who can become links between the rich and the poor, between the ignorant and the educated classes. Our country, happily, knows nothing of those caste hatreds which so cruelly separate the rich and poor of other lands. May all those women favoured by fortune realise that we depend on their charity and devotion to the interests of the people to maintain this happy condition of things."

Such is the introduction to each copy of rules and regulations for use in the Communal Jardins d'Enfants in Brussels. Before giving the regulations of these schools, it will be well to give the general moral principles which are printed for every teacher giving lessons in Brussels.

#### INSTRUCTIONS TO TEACHERS ON THE MORAL TRAINING OF CITIZENS.

The teacher will gain inspiration for the moral training of her pupils from the following general principles. She must grasp every opportunity, and create occasions for drawing the child's attention to the following points in a forcible way, by simple reasoning on homely incidents and familiar deeds:—

*I. Duty Towards Oneself.* — Duty of self-preservation. Hygiene. Cleanliness. Temperance. Happiness produced by

work. Order, economy. Moderation in dress. Saving, moral advantages of saving. Duty of self-instruction and improvement. Power of "self-help." Prudence. Respect of truth. Reverence for the given word. Courage. Personal dignity. Honour.

*II. Duty Towards the Family.*—Family happiness. Economy as a means of procuring funds necessary to start a home. Mutual help. Foresight. Duty of children towards their parents. Filial love; respect; obedience; help; blameworthy behaviour of children who refuse to help their parents. Mutual interdependence of the family. Harmony between masters and servants, between employers and workers.

*III. Duty Towards Mankind.*—

(a) Duties of Justice.—They are included in this fundamental maxim: "Do not unto others what you would not they should do unto you." Respect for the life of others. Condemnation of murder. Respect for the liberty of others. Respect for property, monuments, and public gardens. Binding character of promises and contracts. Theft and fraud. Duty of restoring things wrongly acquired, and of repairing the wrong done to another. Respect for the honour and reputation of others. Calumny, defamation, and slander. Respect for opinions and beliefs. Liberty of conscience; tolerance.

(b) Duties of Charity.—The duties of charity are summed up in these maxims: "Love thy neighbour as thyself," and "Do unto others as you would they should do unto you." The duties of charity are binding on each of us according to the measure of our possessions. Well-doing. Begging. Help to poor children (education, work). Devotion and sacrifice. Kindness to animals.

*IV. Rights and Civic Duties.*—Love of country. The nation is a large family. Defence of native land. Reverence for national flag. Respect for the constitution. Obedience to laws; respect due to public authorities. Love of country does not exclude sympathy with other peoples, nor love of Humanity.

ORGANISATION OF JARDINS D'ENFANTS IN BRUSSELS.

The Time Table and educational instructions are arranged by the College of Burgomaster and Aldermen in conformity with the general rules of August 16th, 1879, and the provisions of September 15th, 1880.

*Conditions of Admission.*—Parents who wish to send children to a Jardin d'Enfants must produce a declaration from the *police sanitaire*; another stating the age of the child; its home and the profession of its parents, and a doctor's certificate, stating that the child has been vaccinated. Attendance is free for all children living in the Commune from three to six years old, whose parents desire it. Children before coming to school must be washed and their hair brushed and combed, they must each have a clean handkerchief, and besides this every Monday and Thursday they must put on clean linen. Children remaining to dinner at school must bring a basket with their food and a mug.

*Hours of Opening.*—The Jardins d'Enfants are open from 8 a.m. to 4 p.m. All children must be present at 8.45, when the classes begin. Those who remain to dinner are placed under the care of a teacher appointed for the purpose. No child may be dismissed without leave of the College (Burgomaster and Echevins).

*Holidays.*—The holidays are: Sunday, Thursday afternoons, November 1st and 15th, Ascension Day, Whit Monday, Holy Thursday (afternoon), July 21st, September 23rd. The longer vacations are arranged as follows:—From December 25th to January 2nd inclusive; from the Thursday before Easter to the second Monday after Easter inclusive; from August 1st to September 15th. (In practice the summer holidays in these schools vary somewhat.) *Classes de vacances* are held in a few schools.

*Staff.*—The *Jardinière-en-Chef* is responsible for the general supervision of the Jardin. She must see that strict order and perfect cleanliness prevail throughout the whole establishment. She must give lessons each day in different divisions of the Jardin. She must keep the following registers: one containing, in chronological order, all the communications addressed to her by the College; a register in which she enters the Christian and surnames of the children, the date and place of birth, the name of the medical officer who has signed the certificate of vaccination; the name and occupation of parent or guardian; the homes of these last; and special observations. Also a register of attendance in which the *Jardinières* sign their names every day on their arrival at the school. This register is checked by the *Jardinière-en-Chef* as soon as the admission bell sounds. She must also keep an inventory of school properties and a book of orders. During the first three days of every quarter the *Jardinière-en-Chef* sends a report on the condition of her school in the preceding quarter to the Bureau of Public Instruction, stating the number of vacancies and any absences or irregularities of her staff. On July 1st each year she must send a report to the Inspectrice on her management, on the attendance of her pupils together with the statement of any interesting facts. Also on July 1st she should inform the Communal Administration of any repairs or alterations that ought to be done during the holidays. She must not be absent without leave from the College (Burgomaster and Echevins). She ought to arrive the first and leave the last in the school she rules. The *Jardinière-en-Chef* can, in case of emergency, grant a day's leave to a member of the staff, but she must at once notify the same to the Bureau of Public Instruction. She receives from 2,000 francs to 3,500 francs a year. On retiring she gets a pension consisting of three-fifths of her salary calculated on the last three years of her service. *Jardinières* (1st class) receive 1,700 to 2,000 francs. *Jardinières* of the 2nd class receive 1,300 to 1,600 francs. Assistants receive 1,000 francs to 1,200 francs. Supply teachers receive 1,000 francs.

Except in special cases the salaries rise 100 francs every two years for those receiving from 1,000 to 1,600 francs. The post of *Jardinière* of the 1st class may be obtained, under favourable circumstances, after 15 years of service. The rise of salaries from 1,700 to 2,000 francs is 100 francs every three years. In the 14 Communal *Jardins d'Enfants* in Brussels there are 14 *Jardinières-en-Chef*, 35 *Jardinières* of the 1st class, 44 *Jardinières* of the 2nd class, and 16 *Assistant-Jardinières*, altogether, with the *Inspectrice*, 110 teachers. The 14 schools when full hold 3,400 children, thus giving the proportion roughly as one teacher to 30 children. But, in these special schools, instead of rigidly adhering to one teacher in each room, there is some interchanging. For instance, for building or plaiting, folding or drawing, several teachers will be drafted into one room, leaving a large number of children to do free games outside under one teacher. Thus perhaps for a quarter of an hour there will be four teachers in one room to 40 children, in order to give individual attention.

The teaching staff is required to be at the school 15 minutes before the classes begin. One of the teachers is specially selected to take care of the children who come at 8 o'clock in the morning. Teachers are strictly forbidden to receive any presents from parents, to be absent without leave from the College, or to do any other work beside the school work. They are each required to take the temperature of their rooms, and notify the same on a card printed for the purpose. From 16° to 18° Cent. is the rule. Every week the card, signed by the *Jardinière-en-Chef*, is sent to the Bureau of Hygiene.

Besides the teaching staff there is a *femme de service* attached to each school. She takes her orders entirely from the *Jardinière-en-Chef*, to whom she owes respect and obedience. She is responsible for the children's physical requirements, for the cleanliness of the children and the school, and she must assist in any accidental emergency that may arise. Before and after class hours she must open the windows to air the rooms, and close them carefully. She must light the fires an hour before the arrival of the children, and keep them up.

The salaries of the whole staff working in the 14 Communal *Jardins d'Enfants* in Brussels amount to 195,800 francs. This is paid by the Communal Administration of Brussels. The sum is exclusive of concierges, supply, and unattached teachers. The Budget estimate for 1908 for these salaries amounts to 263,300 francs for the *Jardins d'Enfants* (14); for the salaries of teachers engaged in elementary education the estimate for 1908 is 1,522,450 francs (21 schools, 13,812 scholars, 546 teachers).

*Care of Children by Staff.*—Every day before the classes begin the *Jardinières* ask to see pocket-handkerchiefs: they must see that the children's stockings are well drawn up, their shoes tied and cleaned. They specially see that the children are clean; that the boys' hair is closely cut, and the girls' carefully brushed. If they find the children dirty, they may have them washed by the *femmes de service*. The nice appearance of the children must

be closely attended to. A quarter of an hour before going home the *Jardinières* review the children, to see that they are perfectly clean and in good order. If, after constant warnings from the *Jardinière-en-Chef*, the parents persist in keeping their child dirty and disorderly, the *Jardinière-en-Chef* may ask the College to send a formal warning to the parents. If this remains unheeded, the College then dismisses the child from the school. Every day during the winter soup is given to the children whose parents ask for it. (*See below.*) It is strictly forbidden to strike any child; the children must be always gently reprimanded.

*School Committees.*—Each Jardin d'Enfant (Communal) in Brussels has its special School Committee. These Committees are a help to the Communal Administration, and should greatly assist in making known to the parents the benefits of instruction. Their chief duties are: to follow the lessons and to signify to the Communal Administration anything that concerns the execution of the Code, any improvements in the curriculum, and the position of the *Jardinières*. They must find out children who do not come to school, use their influence with parents to send their children regularly, and communicate with Charitable Committees with this end in view; they must see that the care and discipline of the school is continued as much as possible at home. Members of this Committee are chosen wherever practicable from people living in the neighbourhood of the school.

The *Echevin de l'Instruction Publique* is an ex-officio member of every school Committee, but the Presidency is always left to one of the lady members; he may always delegate Mme. l'Inspectrice des Jardins d'Enfants to replace him on the Committee. In cases of difficulty, the voice of the President is supreme: but mention must be made of this in the minutes. The Committee elect their secretary annually. The College has entire control over these School Committees. Each of these Committees is composed of a lady president and four to six ladies, and there are 14 such Committees in Brussels. The annual report of the Communal Council for 1907 gives this tribute to their work:—

"The ladies of the School Committees continue to surround the Jardins d'Enfants with their enlightened as well as generous care. We owe them our most hearty gratitude. Mmes. S. Speyer and Hanman, who have been members of School Committees for 25 years, have just been decorated with a civic medal of the First Class."

*Clothing.*—Out of the 3,323 children between three and six attending the 14 Jardins d'Enfants in Brussels, no less than 2,628 received substantial gifts of clothing during the year 1906-7. These were made and contributed by various societies, including the School Committees (who contributed 233 complete outfits and 5,449 various garments), Philanthropic Societies—"Le Denier des Jardins d'Enfants," "La Violette," "La Gazette"—and by various philanthropic ladies. Besides this the pupils and staff of the Training College

of Teachers and some High School girls also gave presents of clothing made by themselves to the children of the Jardins d'Enfants. One of these schools visited by me, containing 200 children, had received during the past year 161 complete outfits and 1,039 garments, entirely from private charities. No grants are given for clothing from State, Province, or Commune to the Jardins d'Enfants. (*See Appendix J.*)

*Toys and other Gifts.*—Besides these clothes the children of these 14 schools received in money 451 francs, and vast quantities of bon-bons and fruits. A few children under six were sent for country holidays, but the rule in all the holiday societies precludes children under six.

*Feeding.*—A large number of children are fed daily in these schools. Some are given soup all the year round, most only have it from November to May. Some pay 1d., others have it free. A free list is printed up in each class-room, from which names are crossed out as the parents become able to contribute. There are no statistics to show the proportion of children staying to dinner, but I visited several schools at dinner-time, and found about 50-60 children out of about 250 having soup at 11.30. The soup was mostly cooked by the concierge in a large vessel on the gas stove; it was made by boiling together potatoes, tapioca, vegetables, and beef for two hours, and it cost about 4 francs for over 100 children.

Though it was not by any means the general rule, in a great many cases the scholars of the Cours Menagère served the children's dinners in the Jardins d'Enfants. The children sat at long tables in their class-rooms, a cloth was laid, mugs and spoons were placed for them, and four or six girls carried in the hot soup and ladled it out to the children. The Directrice was always present, but the Institutrice of the Cours Menagère superintended the meal. In cases where meat and potatoes were served afterwards the girls of the Cours Menagère had to cut it up for the children. The soup is given by private societies, with a grant from the Commune in most cases. The statistics do not separate the schools, but the grant given last year to "l'Œuvre de la Soupe Scolaire" was 10,000 francs for the Communal Schools. Various societies give money towards feeding the children, especially during the winter months. It may be mentioned that in a great many class-rooms water is kept for the children to drink at any time.

A gracious acknowledgment of all the gifts and contributions to the Jardins d'Enfants is made in the annual report by the "Conseil Communal," ending, "We thank most heartily all contributors for the joy and benefits they have brought into our Ecoles-Gardiennes."

*Communal Inspection.*—One Inspectrice, at a salary of 4,800 francs, paid by the Commune of Brussels, superintends the education of the Jardins d'Enfants in conformity with the Code and the instructions of the College. She sees that the programme arranged by the Communal Administration is carried out, she directs the applica-

## 24 *Provision in Belgium for Children under School Age.*

tion in strict conformity with the Froebel method, as it has been decided by the College. Her inspection covers the whole material part of the establishment. At regular intervals the Inspectrice calls her teachers together in a Conference appointed by the *Echevin de l'Instruction Publique* (the Town Councillor specially charged with the oversight of primary education). These Conferences practically take place twice a year, and there are usually over 100 teachers present. To encourage originality and initiative in her teaching staff Mme. Destrée, Inspectrice des Jardins d'Enfants, in the course of these conferences calls on teachers individually to explain any new game they may have invented for their children, to illustrate any story they may have told, to show any new designs evolved by themselves or their pupils, to go through any new action song that has been specially successful. If the new experiment appears sufficiently meritorious it is adopted by the others.

The Inspectrice arranges a Time Table for each class in conformity with the general provisions of the rules of 1879. *Jardinières-en-Chef* of Jardins d'Enfants are under the Inspectrice, and must follow as closely as possible every instruction given by her. She makes an annual report to the *Echevin de l'Instruction Publique* on the progress of the children and the teaching staff. Madame Destrée lectures on Froebel teaching at the Training College to those who are training for Jardins d'Enfants. The relations between Madame Destrée and her teachers are most harmonious; she visits every school at least once a fortnight unexpectedly. She has a small office at one of the schools in Brussels, and is always to be found there on Mondays for consultation in cases of difficulty. Letters can be addressed there. And it may be interesting to note that she has been writing a book on the subject of infant education for the past two years, which she hopes to finish this year. She is making many interesting experiments on the subject of reading for young children, and has come to the conclusion that it is better for the child not to begin to read at all till it is six and passes into the Primary school. Madame Kergomard, Inspectrice-Generale des Ecoles-Maternelles, Paris, who has recently talked over the subject with Madame Destrée, thinks five years old the right age to begin. Considerable development has evidently taken place in these schools under the guidance of Madame Destrée; several countries have sent delegates to learn her methods, and to study the organisation of these Jardins d'Enfants. One of these visitors wrote to Mme. l'Inspectrice afterwards: "I often think of the bright and fresh garden that I visited with you. In my whole long career I have never been so impressed with the absence of artificiality as I have been in your schools. These children, who cry out '*Bonjour*' to you, who call you to see what they have made, who seem so truly pleased to see you, remind me of my nephews and nieces when they were small welcoming me into their playroom. This is indeed a philanthropic work, and, better still, you can create and multiply similar places."



The annual report of the Conseil Communal pays a high tribute to the devoted work of Mme. l'Inspectrice.

*State Inspection.*—All Ecoles-Gardiennes in receipt of Government grant are under State Inspection. There are head Inspectors and district Inspectors, who inspect all three classes of schools, Communal, Adopted and Private (adoptable). Conferences are held once a year.

*Medical Inspection.*—This has only been organised for the Communal schools in Brussels since February, 1906, when a small pamphlet was issued setting forth the system of inspection by doctors. The rules came into force on April 1st, 1906. Seven doctors were appointed by the College (Communal Administration, 6th Division), one being called the Principal Doctor. Each of these was given a division and made responsible for from six to eight schools. These included the 14 Jardins d'Enfants, 21 Primary schools, four Crèches, two Secondary schools, four professional, two Cours Ménagères, one orphanage, and two Cours d'éducation. A list of schools and the name of the Doctor attending, with his address, was printed and circulated among the 50 establishments to be medically inspected. Two visits a month were required in each of the Primary schools, Jardins d'Enfants and Crèches. These visits were to bear on the hygienic conditions of different parts of the schools (class rooms, halls, gymnasiums, lavatories, etc). Reports were to be made on the state of cleanliness and healthy condition of the children generally. Heads of schools and crèches were asked to point out to the doctors at each visit children with defective sight, special affection of the eyes, nose or ears, suspected adenoids (*see Appendix M*) and those who could not follow their lessons with satisfactory results. In addition to such specially selected cases, the doctor was required to examine the children of one or two classes, so that, at the end of the school year, each child should have been individually examined. The physical and mental condition of the child should be examined, and any symptoms requiring immediate attention noted. In this latter case, the Directrice must summon the parents and repeat at once the doctor's orders, so that the child may be taken to a hospital or receive further advice at once. In no case shall the doctor visiting the school undertake the treatment.

The authorities urge both doctor and Directrice, as well as other members of the staff, to exercise a maternal foresight, so that the parents may be warned in time, and the child saved from developing a disease which care and immediate attention might prevent. If the doctors' warnings are neglected by parents, steps will be taken to ensure attention. Various cards, sheets and registers have to be filled up by the doctors; one regarding the sanitary condition of the school, lighting, warming, etc., with an order for the child to have medicine given at the school if necessary. (Originally, cod-liver oil was given to sickly children, but in November, 1906, during winter, emulsion of hypophosphites was substituted.) The

card to be filled up by the doctor on the mental and physical condition of the child (*see Appendix G*) requires some explanation. It was only issued May, 1907, accompanied by the following elaborate explanatory circular: "The teacher's mission is to look after the general culture of new pupils. It is as much her duty to watch over their physical education as over their mental and moral training. Elaborating this thought, Féré has said: 'It is not the brain alone which is developing but the whole organism becomes active.' The physical condition of a child influences considerably its capacity for work. Often enough when we find a child idle or uncontrolled, stupid or wild, it may mean we have a little sick child to tend. Such a child is often naughty when nervous trouble prevents it from learning or behaving as well as its companions. It is most important for the Directrice to realise fully the physical condition of her pupils at the end of the school year. With this knowledge it will be much easier to adapt their lessons to their temperament, their character and disposition. There will be less risk of falling into the mistake of burdening them with tasks injurious to their particular constitution. The health card which we now present to the school is intended to draw their attention to many interesting points; their height, their weight, revaccination, previous acute illnesses; the state of their eyes, ears, mouth, heart, lungs, nervous system, according to the statements made by the school doctor. From all these statements together she will be able to decide whether the child should be given preventive medicines, if it should have soup at school, how much gymnastic work it is fit for, and if it ought to be sent into the country (*colonie scolaire*). The entries on the health card are entirely left to the devoted and intelligent efforts of the school doctor and the Directrice. Measurements can be taken by the Directrice. Children should be measured with bare feet and weighed with a minimum of clothing, preferably in the morning. The curves of growth and of weight are traced in red on the card, according to the average adopted by Quetelet. The height and weight of the child should be marked by the Directrice by means of a black line in the column arranged for this. It will be easy in this way to discover whether the height and weight of the child are above or below the average of Quetelet. *Any check in the development of height or weight often means a morbid condition and particular need of careful watching.* It warns us nearly always that there is need of extra feeding and sending into the open air. The health card will be kept by the Directrice. It will follow the child through every class through which it passes. It will often be consulted by the Directrice, so that she can tactfully suggest measures to the parents by which they can build up the health of their child. The health card must always preserve its confidential character, while the report only makes mention of such facts that can be known to everyone, without annoyance to the child or its relations. It will be, for all the teachers, a certain guide to knowing which children to select specially for

the doctor; their task will be greatly facilitated. These cards have been put in force for the children of the Primary schools of the 1st year from September 15th, 1907. In the Jardins d'Enfants there must be a health card for every child."

As some confusion still prevailed about measuring and weighing the children, yet another circular appeared on October 7th, 1907: "For measuring, it is sufficient to take off the child's boots; for weighing, the clothes need not all be taken off, but note made of those that are kept on. In those schools possessing bains-douches, the children can be weighed when they come out of the bath. The question of medical examination must be left to the discretion of the doctor. It must take place before the Directrice, in a well-warmed room, and not in the presence of other children. If the nature of the examination should render it necessary to undress the child completely, the Directrice can postpone the examination, if she thinks it wiser, till she has the parents' leave." A few medicines are kept by the concierge, who administers them to the children when they arrive in the mornings, according to doctors' orders. These medicines are supplied free by the Commune.

*Infection.*—With regard to infection, there are very stringent rules. The whole teaching staff are furnished with pamphlets describing all the common infectious complaints of childhood, with their early symptoms. (*See Appendix N.*) Dentists have visited the elementary schools for the past 25 years, each school being inspected twice a year, but there is little to do in the Jardins d'Enfants, so the statistics need not be given here. Hygiene is carefully taught to the girls of the Elementary schools at the Cours Menagère.

#### GENERAL CURRICULUM IN JARDINS D'ENFANTS.

The children in these schools are divided somewhat strictly into three divisions; children aged from three to four, four to five, and five to six. In the 14 schools there are 1,075 children in the 1st division, 981 in the second, and 1,267 in the 3rd. The teaching is entirely according to Froebel. But, it is hardly necessary to add, there are many ways of applying Froebel, and the methods used in these schools are free and intelligent. The result is that the children are bright, happy and natural; they are forthcoming and friendly, extremely conversational, and talk a pure language, with clear enunciation. Every child is clean, its hair well brushed, and boys and girls all wear pinafores; the children appeared vigorous and healthy, and seemed thoroughly at ease in their surroundings. They laughed heartily at some of their "*Causerie*" lessons, and were never checked. Mme. Kergomard's words: "A child ought to laugh as a bird ought to sing," have unconsciously become true for these schools. A great deal has depended on the teachers, and Mme. Destrée's influence here is apparent, and warmly acknowledged by those she has helped and is helping daily by wise criticism, encouragement, and suggestion. Never-

theless the entire materialism of the whole curriculum strikes one somewhat grievously. The commercial tendency of all education in Brussels is pronounced even in the baby schools of the Commune.

Shortly summed up, their occupations are as follows. A more lengthy and detailed time-table will be found in *Appendix K*.

	1st Div. 3-4.	2nd Div. 4-5.	3rd Div. 5-6.
Substances :—			
1st Gift.—The Balls - - - - -	2	—	—
2nd Gift.—Sphere, Cylinder, and Cubes -	1	—	—
3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th.—Construction - -	3	4	3
Surfaces :—			
Flat Tablets - - - - -	1	2	2
Counters - - - - -	1	1	—
Folding - - - - -	—	2	2
Pricking Cards - - - - -	—	—	2
Cutting out - - - - -	—	—	2
Lines :—			
Weaving - - - - -	2	2	2
Laths - - - - -	2	3	—
Iron Rings and Sticks - - - - -	—	—	1
Plaiting, Interlacing - - - - -	1	3	2
Coloured Laths - - - - -	—	1	1
Designing - - - - -	2	2	3
Rings - - - - -	—	1	—
Points :—			
Embroidery - - - - -	—	1	1
Sand-modelling - - - - -	2	1	2
Beads - - - - -	2	2	2
Little Talks - - - - -	3	3	3
Occupations - - - - -	22	28	28

#### GENERAL PLAN OF EDUCATION.

Such is the crude outline of the Froebelian system as used throughout Belgium. Before detailing the scheme it will be well to show how this precedes the general plan of education in that country. The concentric character of education in Belgium appears from the very beginning, *i.e.*, at the *Jardins d'Enfants*. There is no question here of education, but of an harmonious whole of exercises calculated to cultivate the physical, intellectual, and moral faculties of little children from the age of three, so that, on reaching the school age of six, they may be able profitably to follow the lessons of the elementary school. Each exercise has a special object which appears in each of the three divisions—the first, inculcation; the second and third, strengthening and extending in proportion to the development of the child's faculties. A notion, taught in its simplest form in the first and second years of study, reappears

in the third year with an increasing wealth of connected ideas. The professional tendency appears at the very beginning. Construction with little sticks and cubes, exercises of folding, plaiting, and modelling give the children manual dexterity, exact notion of size, combinations and special shapes, all of which they will find again in the Primary school, where the education is strongly characterised by this professional tendency.

Again, from the time-table in *Appendix K*, it will be readily seen that a direct relationship is established between observation and elocution exercises on the one hand and manual occupation on the other. From this succession of exercises it naturally follows that for the child notion is associated with its expression by means of words, always strengthened by adequate manual occupation requiring application of mind and action of the senses. The motto of the Belgians is "Schools for Life."

#### LEAVES FROM THE NOTE-BOOK OF A DIRECTRICE.

##### *Monday, January 4th.*

- 9 to 9.45.—*Construction*. Children have had 18 lessons on third and fourth gifts. (N.B.—Third gift is a box containing a 2-inch cube equally divided into eight cubes, 1 cubic inch each. Fourth gift, box containing a cube divided into eight solid oblongs, 2 inches long, 1 inch broad,  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch thick.) Third and fourth gifts together for first time. Show children how to make artistic shape with cubes and oblongs; afterwards encourage them to make their own choice of combinations quite alone. Illustrate.
- 9.45 to 10.15.—*Game*. Throwing balls into a basket placed in the middle of the circle.
- 10.15 to 10.45.—*Interlacing*. Band of paper folded into three, squares interlaced at corners, leads to formation of star. (Children have had 12 lessons on interlacing.)
- 10.45 to 11.—*Gymnastics*. Bending and extension of arms in front.
- 11 to 11.30.—*Little Talk*. On second gift. General appearance of gift, it includes three substances, of which two are known. Do not give name of cylinder yet. The sphere resembles ball in shape, it has a round surface. Find round object in class-room, and then from ordinary life.
- 11.30 to 12.—*Games*. Skipping rope, to jump three times and run away.
- 2 to 2.45.—*Weaving* in paper. 2 and 2, 1 and 1, 2 and 1. Inventions and combinations.
- 2.45 to 3.15.—Free recreation.
- 3.15 to 3.45.—*Counters and Sticks*. Union of coloured counters and sticks, to construct an artistic shape with eight counters, four red and four blue, and eight sticks.
- 3.45 to 4.—*Games*. Balls or toys.

*Tuesday, January 5th.*

- 9 to 9.45.—*Tablets*. Blue and red. Two children work together. Each partner can place two tablets of his own choice to help in the process of making an artistic shape out of four tablets. (Children have had 12 lessons.)
- 9.45 to 10.15.—*Game*. "The Little Shoemaker" (action song).
- 10.15 to 10.45.—*Design*. An ornamental design with sticks of two lengths.
- 10.45 to 11.—*Gymnastics*. Throwing balls into a box.
- 11 to 11.30.—*1st Gift*. (A set of six worsted balls, primary and secondary colours with strings and crossbeam. Froebel's first gift for babies.) Balls of two colours; violet is made from blue and red. Exercise, turning a disc formed by sections of blue and red.
- 11.30 to 12.—*Games*. Throwing balls against the wall.
- 2 to 2.45.—*Beads*. Chains with two strings, bead baskets, etc., for the older children.
- 2.45 to 3.15.—Free recreation.
- 3.15 to 3.45.—*Little Sticks*, the number 7 (children have had eleven lessons taking the numbers 1 to 7). Sticks arranged by children in patterns of 7.
- 3.45 to 4.—*Games*.

*Wednesday, January 6th.*

- 9 to 9.45.—*Construction*. Two working together, common forms. Children will build a bridge under which trains—some passenger, some goods—will pass.
- 9.45 to 10.15.—*Game*. Children jumping two together to music.
- 10.15 to 10.45.—*Laths*. Three laths placed horizontally on three others placed vertically and interlaced. The ornament thus obtained lends itself to various modifications, which may be left to the initiative of the child.
- 10.45 to 11.—*Gymnastics*. To cultivate sound.
- 11 to 11.30.—*2nd Gift*. (Box containing sphere, cylinder, and two cubes.) Cylinder in relation to two first substances. The substances compared. Points of resemblance.
- 11.30 to 12.—*Games*. India-rubber ball, first against wall and second into basket.
- 2 to 2.45.—*Folding*. Square folded three times. Construct a sailing-ship. Talk about ships and sailing.
- 2.45 to 3.15.—Free recreation.
- 3.15 to 3.45.—*Little Talk*. To enrich vocabulary we shall talk to-day about different qualities that may be attributed to different objects. (1) Hat. All not alike; they may be round, pointed, flat, large, narrow, small, etc. (2) Bread may be fresh, stale, round, square, hard, brown, white, etc. (This lesson amused the children greatly.)
- 3.45 to 4.—*Bowling Hoops*.

*Thursday, January 7th.*

- 9 to 9.45.—*Embroidery and Design*, following preceding combinations.  
 9.45 to 10.15.—*Game* of horses, with song.  
 10.15 to 10.45.—*Design*. Development of Tuesday, the 5th. A new design dictated, then developed by child at will.  
 10.45 to 11.—*Gymnastics*. To develop sound. Distinguish between sounds far and near, between wood, stone, and iron.  
 11 to 11.30.—*Cutting Out*. To cut a square into four equal isosceles triangles.  
 11.30 to 12.—*Game*. Dancing and simple jumping by means of ropes.

(Half-holiday.)

*Friday, January 8th.*

- 9 to 9.45.—*Little Talk*. Study second and third verses of "The Little Shoemaker." Explain and sing.  
 9.45 to 10.15.—*Game* "The Little Shoemaker."  
 10.15 to 10.45.—*Plaiting*. Strips of paper; four strips of different colours to make a new pattern.  
 10.45 to 11.—*Game*, abridged from "Prisoners' Base."  
 11 to 11.30.—*Construction*. Third and fourth gifts. A common object—piano; talk about it, then build.  
 11.30 to 12.—*Game*. Cat and mouse in middle—circle round.  
 2 to 2.45.—*Beads*. Bags and bracelets with two threads.  
 2.45 to 3.15.—Free recreation.  
 3.15 to 3.45.—*Little Sticks*. More practice in number 7.  
 3.45 to 4.—*Games*.

*Saturday, January 9th.*

- 9 to 9.45.—*Tablets*. Geometric figures with eight tablets. Squares round a centre. Children working with both hands.  
 9.45 to 10.15.—*Game*. "The Wolf in the Wood." Song.  
 10.15 to 10.45.—*Design*. Free-arm drawing. Children draw outline of a poker after one has examined different parts.  
 10.45 to 11.—*Game*. The blind man—to exercise touch.  
 11 to 11.30.—*Plaiting*. All the children can spend their time in investigating patterns after formula 3 and 3, and 1 and 1 blended.  
 11.30 to 12.—*Game* of running. The sea is calm, agitated, stormy. They run slowly, then faster, and lastly, fast and loud.  
 2 to 2.45.—*Folding*. A hat with wings of rectangular shape.  
 2.45 to 3.15.—Free recreation.  
 3.15 to 3.45.—*Sand and Modelling*. Make balls of sand, different sizes, and set in rows according to size.  
 3.45 to 4.—*Game*. Skipping ropes.

It should be explained that during all these lessons the children are constantly moving about. They come out and point to the

figures on the blackboard, and they are allowed to stand up and speak when they like, without the discipline being too severe.

Moral lessons are also given in these schools, of which the following is a specimen. It is taken from Mme. Gremling's note-book, "*The Charitable Child*," illustrated by the teacher on the board. "Juliette was on her way to school. Mama had said to her: 'Run off, my child, be good, and work well.' Juliette carried her note-book in one hand, and in the other was her little basket, well filled for the mid-day meal, for the school was too distant to allow her to return to dinner. On her way, Juliette met a poor woman who led a ragged child by the hand. The child had very bad boots, and it was crying, perhaps from cold. Its mother went from door to door, asking alms, for she had no bread for her child. Little Juliette stopped, then without hesitating, she plunged her hand into her basket and drew out a slice of bread and jam and a large apple, which she gave to the poor child. Imagine the satisfaction of Juliette after this good deed, and the praise she received from her mother when she recounted her good action."

#### BUILDING AND EQUIPMENT.

The buildings of the *Jardins d'Enfants* in Brussels are specially adapted to small children, and built for the purpose. They contain three or four rooms, each holding about 50 children, on the ground floor. These rooms are high, light and airy; they are arranged with three or four narrow and polished tables, each accommodating about 20 children, 10 on each side. The children sit on low benches with backs in proportion to their size. (The rules for the construction of these rooms ordain cots in which children can be placed if overtaken with sleep, but practically there are none in these schools, nor any sort of accommodation for children to rest. It will be noted on reference to the time-table that there is no time for resting anywhere, and, indeed, I never saw a child asleep in the Brussels schools—a sight so familiar in our own baby-rooms.)

At the end of these class-rooms is a desk and chair for the teacher, and a blackboard. Round the rooms are low blackboards inset in panelling which is finished at the top with a narrow shelf on which stand specimens of the children's work. On these blackboards the children themselves draw with chalk. The pictures on the walls were for the most part French—moral subjects. There are no flowers or growing bulbs or seeds in the class-rooms.

A large hall forms the centre of all the new *Jardins d'Enfants*, where the children play, and often there is more than one. At a new and beautiful school in one of the suburbs, each class-room had its own hall on the opposite side of the passage. The hall has, invariably, a piano, which is much used for singing, marching, and action games. The walls of the hall are often made bright with objects procured for the children by the School Committees, the idea being that the children's curiosity may be



aroused by the sight of uncommon things, such as the children of the rich see in their houses. "The children are also encouraged to manufacture little things themselves for the decoration of the rooms they occupy; their little works will be exposed on the walls; they will begin to understand that nothing is done without trouble, and that satisfaction should always be gained at the expense of work."

A little passage with many low basins for the children to wash, clean towels and soap, leads out of the hall—sometimes into the garden. These gardens are well planted and mostly gravelled; in the paying Jardins d'Enfants each child has its own garden, but though the rules treat this as a necessity, practically it is not so. At one end of the garden are the children's offices. These are particularly well arranged, with low doors, so that one grown person can command them while they are entirely private to the children. As in the French schools, a *femme de service* attends to the children's needs.

There is a small bureau for the *Jardinière-en-Chef*, and rooms in the building for the concierge, who in some cases combines her other duties with that of *femme de service*.

#### Cost.

The cost of building a Jardin d'Enfants, with five class-rooms, is estimated at 125,000 francs. For warming apparatus, lighting, ventilating, and furnishing the same—9,000 francs. Towards this sum, the State usually gives one-third, the Province one-sixth, and the Ville half. In the last case referred to, the State and Province together gave 68,000 francs, the rest of the expense being borne by the Commune.

The upkeep of each school is shown in a table (*see Appendix E*). The total expenses (without building) of the Jardins d'Enfants in Brussels for 1907, amounted to 297,265 francs; the estimate for 1908 is 325,715 francs.

#### ECOLÉS-GARDIENNES IN THE SUBURBS OF BRUSSELS (Communal).

Of these there are 25 distributed among the 10 suburbs.

*St. Gilles*, containing 60,086 inhabitants in 1905, spent in 1907 a sum of 66,440 francs on one Jardin d'Enfants and three Ecoles-Gardiennes. Although the names are interchangeable in this case the 93 children attending the Jardin d'Enfants paid 40-60 francs a year, amounting in all to 3,400 francs; the Commune of *St. Gilles* paid 3,236 francs for this school per annum, the total expenses for the year being 6,636 francs.\* The Ecoles-Gardiennes, containing 1,140 children, cost 74,946 francs per annum. This sum includes salaries of staff, upkeep of buildings and furniture, warming, lighting, school materials, etc., but no construction or sites. Towards the expenses in 1907 the State gave a grant of 6,150 francs plus an extra grant

\* This sum includes 50 francs to a doctor in the Health Department of *St. Gilles*.

of 2,690 francs, the Province gave 2,607 francs, and the Commune 63,203 francs.

*Ixelles*.—Population 70,649 in 1905, spent in 1907 a sum of 64,447 francs on seven Jardins d'Enfants. One of these charges fees, 3,000 francs being received per annum. The other six are attached to the elementary schools of the Commune. Towards these schools the State contributes 7,000 francs per annum, the Province 2,256 francs, the Commune 47,296 francs. The number of children frequenting these schools was not forthcoming.

*Molenbeek-St.-Jean*.—Population in 1905 was 64,619; spent 54,522 francs on six Ecoles-Gardiennes in 1907. These were attended by 1,389 children. The schools are all free. Three occupy buildings of their own, three are annexed to Primary schools. Towards the expenses the State gives 8,275 francs, the Province 1,631 francs, the Commune 43,363 francs. In addition to these there is a Jardin d'Enfants annexed to the High School for Girls, which charges fees. The parents' payments amount to 2,500 francs, the Commune gives 3,096 francs.

*Saint-Josse-ten-Noode*.—Population 33,563 in 1905, spent a sum of 20,940 francs on three Ecoles-Gardiennes, receiving towards this 2,500 francs from the State, 1,051 francs from the Province, and 16,677 francs from the Commune. This Commune has also two Jardins d'Enfants annexed to the Primary schools, and one attached to the High school. These all charge fees, and receive grants from State and Province.

*Schaerbeek*, 71,114 population in 1905, has six Ecoles Gardiennes. This Commune refuses to take children under four years old in these schools; it keeps them for two years before passing them on to the Primary schools. The authorities here have drawn up a very careful programme for the children, and spared no pains or money on their elementary education. Their newest Ecole-Gardienne (not including building), containing six class-rooms, six halls, and 254 children, costs 13,154 francs per annum, of which 11,690 francs are spent on salaries, and 660 francs on cleaning alone. The programme of the Ecoles-Gardiennes at Schaerbeek offers the following suggestions:—"The Ecole-Gardienne is but a means of preparing the child to benefit by primary instruction. Its object is to complete the maternal education of children of the working classes, who are seldom surrounded at home by that assiduous care which is required for the harmonious and regular development of organs and intellectual faculties. To develop the physique of these children by exercise and substantial nourishment (*see Appendix L*), and to contribute thus to ensuring them robust health; to educate the senses, to awaken the faculty of perception, and the spirit of observation; to encourage the instinct of imitation and the hatching of inventive powers; to teach the children, within possible limits, to express clearly their observations and opinions; to accustom them to cleanliness, order, politeness, activity, obedience, kindness towards animals; to inspire them with a love of truth and taste

for the beautiful; to make them good, amiable, generous, and merciful; to set them against alcoholic drinks, showing them the advantages of temperance and sobriety—such is the essentially human work confided to our teachers—'*jardinières*.'

"The methods to use are based on the natural laws which govern the physical, moral, and mental development of the child. This is what the genius of Froebel has created. It includes a graduated series of games, exercises, talks, songs, manual occupation, the harmonious blending of which vivifies all organs and powers. The principal rôle of the teacher '*gardienne*' consists in helping the spontaneous activity of her pupil at the right moment. To induce action by making opportunity and supplying an example and application, to throw a charm over the teaching by using the loving persuasions of a mother; this is her part. To succeed, she must avoid the mechanism of the methods, she must not dwell on exterior forms, she must not allow the teaching of work and occupations to become monotonous or apply things as detailed in a manual. She must be permeated with the spirit of the Froebel system; vary the lessons, talks, games; always invent new combinations, and finally lead the children to create for themselves by allowing them to be spontaneous and free."

On the subject of "Little Talks" the syllabus enlarges. There are to be practical talks illustrating the six Froebel gifts; talks about their homes, families, cooking utensils, ailments, parts of the human body, clothes, domestic animals; talks about the seasons of the year. Spring: Working in gardens, the first flowers, fruit trees, birds and their nests. Summer: Flowers and fruits, vegetables, insects, butterflies, bees, corn, wheat, etc. Autumn: Fruit, apples, pears, plums, etc., departure of birds. Winter: Ice, snow; firing, lighting. Talks on little objects brought to school by the children, cultivating their observation and research, accustoming them to arrange and classify; talks on pictures representing scenes from family life or familiar events. The teacher will encourage the children to ask questions, and listen to their explanations of the subjects represented. She will allow them to reproduce these pictures, observing their ideas of colour; talks on moral subjects. The teacher must make choice of a certain number of suitable stories which shall make children love their duties; she must tell the story with feeling, ask questions, and complete the lesson by homely remarks. It is advantageous to establish a relation between the little talks and the moral stories. If she can blend them well, if after the lesson that appeals to the senses and mind she turns to that which appeals to the heart, if the first leads quite naturally to the second, she will exercise a beneficial and enduring influence on the child, the result of this happy alternation.

The stories should not be out of a book; the intelligent teacher will note passing events, public or private, and use them to make interesting and varied stories. Children naturally love animals, the companions of their games—birds, insects, flowers,

all these are specially interesting. The little pieces of poetry that they should learn are just those which speak of these, and those which make duty appear easy and pleasant. Each little piece should be beautiful, and no efforts should be spared to make the children recite correctly and with expression. Everything that teaches pronunciation is of the first importance in the Jardins d'Enfants. Games are a necessity for children, they must move, run and jump—they are of the very first importance in the Ecoles-Gardiennes. Difference must be made between free games and gymnastic games. The games are watched by the teacher, she suggests and inspires, but gymnastic games have a healthy influence on the development of the body; they should imitate natural movements—the work of the labourer, the movements of animals, things, ships, trains, mills, always accompanied by music when possible. They should always be done out of doors when weather permits. But in bad weather there should be plenty of toys in the hall—balls, skipping-ropes, dolls, horses, boxes of bricks, tools, etc.

Whenever possible, the children should have little gardens of their own (this is possible in suburban schools), where they can garden with their own hands; in sowing seeds, watering and planting, the little pupils get a notion of botany and cultivation, they will learn to observe and love flowers and to appreciate manual labour. Indeed, gardening is such a healthy occupation for children that it should play a large part in the Jardins d'Enfants.

This syllabus, issued to all the teachers of Schaerbeek, adds to its general utility by appending a list of useful books on manual occupation, talks, recitations, songs, games, etc.

#### ECOLÉS-GARDIENNES IN BRUSSELS AND SUBURBS (Private).

There are 35 private Ecoles-Gardiennes, some of which are adopted and subsidised by the Commune. Several of these have crèches attached. For the most part the private schools visited by me were not in such good order as the Communal schools; they contained fewer children as a rule, and the children were less clean; few of them were fed. There were, of course, exceptions, but there were no special points worthy of note. They are mostly under Government, but not medical, inspection. It was impossible to discover how many children were in these private schools without going to each one, no statistics being published.

#### JARDINS D'ENFANTS AT LIÈGE (Town).

*Jardins d'Enfants (Communaux).*—Liège, with a population of 172,207 in 1905, has 20 Jardins d'Enfants accommodating 3,800 children. (The whole province of Liège has 228 Ecoles Gardiennes—113 Communal, 115 adopted—accommodating 20,224 children.) The annual cost of these 20 Jardins d'Enfants is 196,550 francs. Of this, the State pays 20,525 francs, the

Province 3,100 francs, and the Commune 154,828 francs. The staff consists of 84 teachers, or about one teacher to every 45 children. Their salaries are: One Directrice at 3,800 francs, 20 head mistresses at 1,600-1,800 francs; depending on length of service, 54 teachers receiving 1,300-1,600 francs, and nine receiving 1,000-1,200 francs. They all have to undergo a special course of training, lasting two years at the Training College at Liège, on the Froebel methods. This course includes the following subjects: The elements of education and method generally, including the history of education, principally in the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries; special methods applied to the Jardins d'Enfants; accurate knowledge of the Froebel methods; instructive exercises for the Jardins d'Enfants; infant hygiene; the French language; arithmetic; geography of Belgium, and notions of general geography; elementary national history; the first elements of natural history; geometry and design; singing and gymnastics.

Thirty-three pupils completed the course in 1905. Froebel method was introduced into the Liège schools in 1861, and is flourishing vigorously there to-day. The Directrice—practically an Inspectrice—has charge of the Froebelian course for teachers at the Training College. She teaches education, method, Froebel, infant hygiene, and *morale*. The schools are free and optional for children within the Commune aged from three to six. Those from without the Commune pay a small fee. The schools are open from 8 a.m. Those children who stay all day receive a bowl of soup at mid-day. This soup, given to all the children at the expense of the Commune, is wholesome, substantial, and as varied as possible. Besides meat, potatoes and vegetables, split peas, haricots, rice, sugar, milk, and barley are largely used. It is cooked by means of a *bain-marie* in one of the central schools which contains a kitchen. During 1904, 395,085 portions of soup were distributed at a cost of 17,375 francs. The average number of portions per day was 1,367 on 289 days of the year. The proportion of portions to litres was 395,085 portions and 189,008 litres.

On St. Nicholas' Day a distribution of clothes takes place. These are made at the Primary schools.

The programme of the Jardins d'Enfants at Liège includes the usual Froebelian course. During the first year the children examine the first four gifts; they practise with little sticks, tablets, weaving, bead-threading, etc. The second year the fifth gift is added, more elaborate work and some design is done; the third year the sixth gift is added, with extra additions in the shape of rings and more varied design. There is no reading or writing, and very little arithmetic done in these schools. Perhaps the Liège syllabus with regard to the application of Froebel may be of interest. These are suggestions for little conversations:—

*October.*—(1) School, return to school, where the school is, principal divisions of the building. The furniture in the classroom, benches, tables, blackboards, etc. (2) Autumn, the fall of

the leaves, work, autumn seed-time, hunting, the hunter, dog, game. Vegetables and fruits of the season, provisions for winter.

*November.*—(3) The human body, the head, face, skull, hair. The organs of sense which centre in the head. Body, chin, sides, back. Upper parts: shoulders, arms, elbows, hands. Lower parts: thighs, knees, legs, feet. Cleanliness, need of cleanliness in every part of the body. Very simple advice in hygiene.

*December.*—(4) Clothing, clothes in general. Head-gear. Clothing of the body, wool, silk, leather. The tailor, dress-maker, shoemaker. (5) Winter: days and nights, ice and snow, the pleasures of winter, snowballs, slides, skating, evenings at home. St. Nicholas. Sufferings of the poor. Little birds. Charity. Winter clothing.

*January.*—(6) New Year's Day. Fuel. Necessity of warming the rooms. Principal fuel, wood, coal, coke. The miner, the carter, the coal-dealer. Division of seasons (character of each) into months (recall each one of them by some impressive phenomena, a well-known deed, a dress), into weeks; the days of the week, names, specialities.

*February.*—(7) Necessity of lighting rooms. Means of lightings, candles, oil, lamps. Danger of petroleum, matches, precautions to take, gas, electricity (draw attention to light produced). (8) The family; paternal home, principal parts, furniture of the house, man's profession—mason, carpenter, shoemaker, locksmith, etc.

*March.*—(9) Domestic animals—cat, dog, horse, cow. Beef, mutton, veal, pork. Principal fowls in poultry-yard—cock, hen, chicken, goose, duck.

*April.*—(10) Food: bread, meat, vegetables. Baker, butcher, greengrocer. (11) Drinks: water, coffee, milk, beer, wine. Various uses of water. (12) Spring; appearance of Nature. Sun, warmth, flowers, trees, gardens, fields. Business of the gardener. Principal tools for gardening. Return of the birds; swallows; nests.

*May.*—(13) The fields, wild flowers, singing birds; ways of the common birds. (14) Flowers and vegetables in the month of May. (15) Insects: bee, butterfly, spider, caterpillar, louse, worm, moth. (16) Games of children in spring.

*June.*—(17) Summer: phenomena, length of days and nights, temperature, showers, flowers, summer vegetables, pleasures of summer, work, haymaking, harvest, angling. Various fish. Summer clothes. (18) Means of communication; transport.

*July.*—(19) Minerals: coal, paving stones, marble, gravel. (20) Metals: iron, copper, lead, gold, silver, nickel, tin. (21) Principal holidays; Sundays, national fetes, etc.

*Little Collections.*—Accustom the children to form little collections of various products easily accessible, such as flowers, leaves, seeds, etc.

*Explanation of Pictures.*—Pictures on card representing scenes from family life, children, fields, games, etc., to be connected with little talks, stories and songs.

*Little Moral Stories.*—Instructive explanation and expressive recitation of easy poetry; little stories about children the same as those being taught, in order to make them know, love and practice duties in accordance with their age.

*Songs.*—Songs, rhythmic, with simple harmonies, melody, and sense. Combination of songs and gymnastic exercises.

*Gymnastic Games.*—The teacher will find in the school library, games, songs, and ideas for stories in connection with her little talks and occupations. She must take into consideration the division to which the children belong in selecting these games, songs, and little stories.

The rules of these schools are for the most part the same as those in Brussels. They are entirely free, open from 8 a.m. to 4 or 5 p.m. Parents are requested to bring their children, and fetch them themselves if possible, and if not, to depute some responsible person. During the holidays—Christmas, Easter, August, and September—the schools are organised as usual for those children whose parents are at work (Liège consists of a large industrial population). Parents are requested to bring their children washed, and their hair well brushed, with their shoes cleaned and stockings drawn up; on Mondays and Thursdays they are expected to have clean linen, and always to have a pocket-handkerchief.

In addition to these schools there are fourteen private Ecoles-Gardiennes, directed by various religious orders, including the Sisters of St. Vincent de Paul, les Filles de la Croix, les Sœurs de Ste. Marie, etc.

#### ECOLÉS GARDIENNES AT ANTWERP.

Population in 1905, 297,311; has 15 Ecoles-Gardiennes (Communes) and 18 Private (Adopted). No accounts forthcoming. Soup is given from November 1st to Easter. Children are given tickets at 1d. each, while a few necessitous children have it free. Five kilos of beef make soup for 100 children.

Nothing much is being done with regard to young children; the latest rules were drawn up in 1880; the Cours Normal bears the same date, and the time-tables, which include 36 occupations, have not been revised since 1882.

In the whole Province of Antwerp there are 42 Ecoles-Gardiennes (Communes) and 170 Private (Adopted), containing in all 31,311 children.

## III.—SUMMARY.

Comparing the condition of Infant schools in England with those in France and Belgium, one is at once struck by the tremendous stress laid in the latter countries on *hygiene*. From first to last the physique of young children is recognised as a question of prior importance. Special schools at enormous cost have been built and equipped for infants between three and six; children are invited, not compelled, to attend these schools, which are, for the most part, perfectly free. *But* one important condition is imposed. *The child must be sent clean*, its hair must be well brushed, its shoes cleaned, its stockings drawn up, its linen must be changed on Mondays and Thursdays, and *failure to comply with these regulations means dismissal*.

To encourage this condition of things, a very large number of garments are given away in these schools through private agencies. Also girls in elementary and secondary schools are taught to make small pinafores, etc., for the infants. And not only external appearance, but the child's physical needs are duly considered. In both countries an attendant (*femme de service*) is provided, whose duties are to give certain delicate children medicine (where there is organised medical inspection) on arrival; personally to supervise them at the offices twice a day; to take care of those who are obliged to remain to dinner. With regard to the second of these points, attention has been drawn again and again to the deplorable and *totally inadequate accommodation* of our offices in English schools. The want of proper supervision leads to a condition of affairs wholly incredible to those who have not known, wholly regrettable to those who have the morality of the nation at heart. Added to this, in the case of young children, much ill-health and suffering results from this neglect. It is to be hoped that with all the marked improvements taking place in infant training this crying need may not be set aside.

In Belgium there is constant communication between teacher and parent, and plenty of opportunities for conversation, if necessary, with regard to the child's health. At the hour of dismissal, the Head Mistress, class mistress and concierge are at the big street door where the mothers assemble to meet their children, and as each child is claimed, the Head Mistress often takes the opportunity of congratulating the mother on the child's clean appearance, of suggesting a little more attention in this or that direction, of remarking on what the child has done or said if occasion chanced. While in return, the mother may have something to say or suggest, which is kindly received by the Head Mistress.

Again, the regulations about the children's dinners are more hygienic than ours. Every child in France and Belgium who has to stay at school through the day is obliged to bring its food properly in a basket. The baskets must be properly packed, and there is a special shelf where they are kept neatly



labelled and in an airy place. Our children are still bringing their dinners in dirty pieces of newspaper; they give the unappetising parcel to their class teacher, who puts it into the cupboard where reading books, copy books, and all school materials are kept. The cupboard is then closed. The child eats its dinner, cold, and out of the paper. Anything more unwholesome for a young, growing child can hardly be imagined. The provision of penny dinners in cases where the child is obliged to spend the whole day at school is obviously advantageous, and it is effected abroad with very simple organisation. On the other hand, studying the young child under six from an hygienic point of view, one would like to see more time for *rest* in the breathlessly full programmes of the day. Neither France nor Belgium has any provision for this, though, in any reorganisation of our Infant schools, this subject should receive full consideration. Leaving the hygienic point of view only briefly touched, and passing to the moral and mental training of the child, it may be noted that both France and Belgium are omitting reading, writing, and arithmetic from the subjects to be taught in their Infant schools. From the Communal school programme it has been entirely swept away; some of the small Adopted or Private schools still give in to the parents and teach these subjects. But it is an almost accepted idea now that children have been forced to concentrate their entirely undeveloped minds on subjects such as these to their detriment hereafter. Plenty of free play, undirected occupations and training in self-control in the Infant school will enable the child to learn quickly when it reaches the Elementary school. Madame Destfrée, Inspectrice des Jardins d'Enfants in Brussels, having closely studied the question of learning to read, declares that at the age of six an average child will learn in four months. There are many experts in England who agree with her.

Lastly, let it be observed that though France and Belgium, with regard to the hygiene of Infant schools, have left us somewhat behind, yet, when our reorganisation comes, as come it must in order to reduce the hopeless size of our classes, our large cities can command a well-trained band of teachers, who have been quietly working at new methods, who are trained in the hygiene of *child-life*, who have attended lectures by experts on the subjects of occupations, story-telling, games, Nature-study, etc., in relation to child psychology. They are studying long and devotedly for the love of the subject, and for no commercial end, and they will be capable, when the times are ripe, to organise the Child Nurseries of England on methods which have grown out of the experience of bygone ages by means of which we may hope to turn our over-disciplined babies into more joyous little beings, happier and healthier, more natural and more spontaneous. And not only this. Both France and Belgium have neglected that part of Froebel's training which has been well called the "soul-hood of the child." Froebel was one of the first to realise the vital importance of revealing to the child the individuality of the human soul, to point out "all the glory that

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may come into its life." He revealed the value of nature work—so little used in the foreign schools. This side of his teaching is being developed in our English infant schools, children are being taught to sow seeds and to watch their growth, to follow the natural growth of flower and fruit, and to realise a higher power than that of man. By our fairy stories, our legends, our myths, our encouragement of the childish imagination, we are laying the foundation of that which must develop later into the relation of the human soul towards the Divine.

M. B. SYNGE.

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## APPENDIX A.

## TOWN OF BRUSSELS.

## INFANT HYGIENE.—INSTRUCTIONS TO MOTHERS.

(Drawn up by a Committee of the Belgian National League for the Protection of Infancy.)

Every year more than 30,000 children die in Belgium before they have reached the age of one year. This excessive infant mortality is due, in great measure, to ignorance and to prejudices upheld by custom.

The spread of a knowledge of the elementary rules of infant hygiene is one of the best means by which to check the disastrous results of the faulty methods generally employed in the up-bringing of infants. The mistakes most commonly made are with regard to the feeding of young children; gastro-enteritis (sickness and diarrhoea) is the illness which claims most victims among very young children. Maternal love does not make up for want of knowledge; to be a good mother is a thing which has to be learnt. Many mothers make their children ill without meaning to do so, through ignorance.

The Belgian National League for the Protection of Infancy has thought it a duty to draw up some elementary and practical advice, to be diffused widely among the public. These notes on the care of infants are in the form of short directions to young mothers. They will be useful in enabling them to avoid serious mistakes which may bring on their children deterioration of health, illnesses, permanent physical defects, or even death.

*Some General Principles.*

Cleanliness is one of the first conditions of a child's health. An infant's skin is very sensitive, and soon comes out in a rash or in sores if proper care is not taken immediately to remove soiled linen. If, in spite of attentive care, a rash appears on the buttocks, thighs, legs or heels of the baby, the cause must nearly always be sought in the defective action of the digestive organs.

Air and light are absolutely essential to a child's life and health. Too much heat indoors, especially if the air is close, is as harmful to a child as too great coldness of the open air. The bodily warmth of infants should always be kept up (without excess) by clothes which are soft and not too tight; wool and flannel are usually suitable for infants' clothing in our climate.

*Some Advice.*

At the moment of birth the head of an infant is often ill-formed; there is no need to rub or press it, it will take shape gradually. If the breasts of the new-born infant are swollen, nothing further must be done than to anoint them with camphorated vaseline—rubbing is always harmful. A child should never be rocked; the ancient custom of rocking has an irritating effect on the digestion and nervous system. No medicine should be given to a baby, not even the mildest purge, without a doctor's advice. From the very first a child should be accustomed to food and sleep at regular hours.

The eyes and ears should be attended to very carefully by the parents. Purulent ophthalmia is frequently the cause of blindness; many a blind man might have had his sight if his parents had consulted a doctor in time.

Discharge in the ears often causes meningitis ; if there is matter in the ears they should be seen to at once. Piercing the lobes of the ears is a barbarous and useless custom. The wearing of earrings has never prevented ailments of the eyes ; on the other hand, it has often produced inflammation, ulceration of the skin, and abscesses of the glands.

The mother ought, as much as possible, herself to take charge of her child. The doctor is always the best guide to mothers in bringing up their children. Neighbours should never be consulted about any ailment. As soon as the mother notices that her child is ailing, her duty is to call in a doctor and follow his orders implicitly.

Children should be vaccinated, if possible, during the first three months of life.

There is no need to teach a child to walk ; when it feels strong enough it will take the first steps of its own accord.

Children should be bathed in tepid water (35 centigrades) ; a bath either too hot or too cold is harmful.

It is a good thing to weigh an infant regularly every week. This affords valuable information as to the state of health and the growth of a baby.

There is a small operation often practised, which is useless and often harmful : the severance of the net or vein of the tongue. It is an elastic substance, and very rarely prevents sucking or, later on, speech in a baby.

The use of indiarubber teats is a bad habit. These teats are often contaminated with microbes, and may carry infection.

#### *Feeding of Infants.*

The principles of the healthy feeding of infants are of the highest importance, and special attention should be paid to them, as it is with regard to these that most mistakes are made.

Mother's milk is the best form of food for infants. No other sort of food is to be compared with it. Every mother who is strong enough ought to nurse her child. Breast feeding should, as far possible, continue for fifteen months. The breast should be given at regular intervals and at the same hours every day. The child should have nothing in the intervals, even if it cries.

If the child is asleep at the usual time for its meal, it should be wakened and given the breast. If regularity is maintained from the very first in the hours of feeding and intervals between meals, in spite of crying and sleep, the child will certainly become accustomed very soon to obey a will stronger than its own.

Every woman who is nursing should abstain from alcoholic liquors, heady wine and strong beer ; a very light beer is the most that should be allowed with meals.

If the mother has evidently too little milk to feed her child sufficiently, either temporarily or altogether, mixed feeding must be resorted to ; that is, the child must be given a certain quantity of animal milk to supplement the insufficiency of the maternal breast. It is a mistake to suppose that milk from different sources cannot be mixed. This mistake is one that even in these days prevents the spread of the practice of mixed nourishment.

Artificial feeding is that which has to be resorted to when the milk of the mother or wet-nurse is unavailable for the infant. For artificial feeding, cow's milk is generally used, with good reason. It is easily procured, it is plentiful and cheap, and is to be had everywhere. Ass's milk, mare's, goat's, or sheep's milk may also be used sometimes. It is absolutely necessary, in having recourse to artificial feeding, to ensure in every possible way that the milk is of good quality. Milk which has been passed through a separator should never be used for feeding young children. In Belgium, the regulations for the sale of milk allow the retailing of partially and wholly skimmed milk. According to the bye-laws on the subject, the former when offered for sale must be in jugs which have a brown stripe round the neck, and the thin milk, from which all the cream has been taken, in jugs with a blue stripe round the neck. These two kinds of milk should never be used for *infants*.

It is for the doctor to decide whether the milk is to be given pure, or whether it is to be diluted or sweetened. Dilutions should always be made with water that has just been boiled, and according to the doctor's directions. Before giving the milk to the child it is well to be certain, by tasting it, that the liquid has no disagreeable smell or taste.

Noxious germs which may contaminate milk and produce illness (gastro enteritis, tuberculosis, typhoid fever, etc.) may be mitigated or destroyed by different practices, such as pasteurisation, boiling, heating by steam and sterilisation.

Pasteurisation is a method which consists in bringing a liquid to about 70 degrees Centigrade, and then cooling it very rapidly.

Milk is sterilised by bringing it to a temperature of 110 degrees Centigrade. Milk which has only been pasteurised, boiled or steamed, should be consumed within twenty-four hours. Although sterilised milk will keep longer, it is advisable in feeding an infant not to use very stale milk. Whatever milk is used, it should be kept in clean vessels, protected from dust, and in a place that is cool and free from smells.

All heating processes (pasteurisation, boiling, sterilisation) should be carried out as soon as possible after milking, or they may have no effect. Milk is usually given to an artificially-fed child by means of a bottle. The simpler these are the better. Bottles of annealed glass are very commonly sold, thin but strong enough to resist variations of temperature, with rounded corners inside and out; these bottles, fitted with a plain india-rubber teat, are very suitable as feeding-bottles. All feeding-bottles with tubes are very dangerous, and should be entirely forbidden.

Milk should be given warm to the child (35 degrees Centigrade). The most perfect cleanliness is requisite for everything that touches the milk meant for the baby. The hands, the receptacles, the bottles and teats should always be scrupulously washed before coming into contact with the milk. The success of artificial feeding of infants depends on the exact and minute observance of these hygienic prescriptions.

#### *Weaning.*

Weaning is the period of the child's life which extends from the moment that other food is added to the milk diet until such time as milk becomes quite a secondary food.

This period extends over a long time. Weaning should never be sudden; milk should remain the staple nourishment up to the age of 2½ or 3 years. In the days when food from the breast was the universal rule, the word *weaning* was used to mean the cessation of giving the breast. When a child is weaned from the breast, mother's milk should be gradually replaced by animal milk. The substitution should take place slowly and by degrees; the longer it takes the less risk there is for the infant; it should extend over several months.

When it is necessary to leave off breast-feeding suddenly (a matter about which the doctor ought always to be consulted) food from the breast will be replaced by animal milk. When the child has reached a certain age (8 months at least) one, and then a second, meal of milk may be replaced by light farinaceous food (boiled).

Solid food given prematurely is extremely dangerous.

Before the first incisors appear starch foods are rarely necessary.

Much sorrow might be spared to young mothers and much illness to infants if the hygienic rules of feeding in infancy were put in practice and scrupulously observed.

Signed for the Committee by DR. A. DEVAUX (President),  
Inspector-General of Public Health.  
DR. EUGENE LUST (Secretary).

## APPENDIX B.

### LEAFLET ISSUED BY THE SOCIÉTÉ PROTECTRICE DES ENFANTS MARTYRS.

#### LAITERIE MATERNELLE

(1, PLACE DE LA DOUANE, BRUSSELS.)

#### *We advise Mothers :—*

(1.) To put the basket containing the feeding bottles of milk into a cool place (for example, a cellar) immediately it is delivered, and, during extreme heat, to place the bottles in a bucket of cold water, which should be renewed several times a day.

(2.) Not to uncork the bottle till it is required for feeding.

(3.) To taste the milk from each bottle, by pouring some into a spoon, before giving it to the child ; the milk should have no bad taste, nor should it possess the slightest trace of acidity.

(4.) To keep quite dry the teats which are put on to the bottles when giving milk to the baby. After having used the teat, it should be washed in plenty of water and till the next meal kept dry in a closed vessel (glass or china for choice), so that no dust can reach it.

(5.) To feed the babies at the same hour every day.

(6.) To give the milk very slowly without minding if a little air gets into the milk during the meal ; this mixture, on the contrary, makes the milk more digestible.

(7.) To take the child on their knees while feeding it with the bottle ; this process should last about ten minutes.

(8.) To rinse the empty bottle which has contained milk at once, taking care also to rinse the stopper at the mouth of the bottle in plenty of running water.

(9.) After the rinsing to fill the bottle with clean water and leave it thus till it is called for by the carman.

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## APPENDIX C.

## SYLLABUS ON THE CARE OF INFANTS.

## BRUSSELS.

The following is a translation of the authorised syllabus on the care of infants for the *écoles ménagères* of the *Ville de Bruxelles*,\* drawn up by Mme. Cléys, *Directrice de l'école Bischoffshein*.

## THE CARE OF INFANTS AND INFANT HYGIENE.

## COURSE OF THE ECOLE MÉNAGÈRE.

*Baby Garments.*

The garments of babies must be: (1) warm, (2) ample, in order not to impede the function of any organ and not to embarrass the movements in any way.

There are two methods of clothing babies: the *French method* and the *English method*.

These two methods include the same garments for the upper part of the body—a chemise, a flannel or cotton vest, a vest of piqué or some other material, a triangular kerchief and a robe (these garments are fastened at the back).

*The French method* includes for the lower part of the body: a linen diaper and a wool or soft flannel swathing band in which the baby's legs are wrapped and enclosed.

*Old-fashioned baby-clothes.*—Formerly these *baby-clothes* were completed by a flannel band which was rolled firmly round. In certain countries even the child's head was made immovable by means of a piece of linen which was fixed to the clothes on each side of the neck. This is still used in the southern provinces of our country.

*Popular error.*—The child's body will be warmer and straighter if it is tightly bound in its clothes.

*The English method* includes for the lower part of the body: (1) linen diaper folded into a triangle, a pilche of flannel of triangular shape, woollen stockings, and little woollen shoes.

The point of the diaper and that of the pilche are brought together by a pin between the baby's legs, in order to leave them complete liberty.

*The English baby-clothes* are the better, because they allow the child to move and to develop freely.

*The French baby-clothes*, if they are well applied, have the advantage of preserving the baby's warmth better; their use may also be recommended during the night and during the first days which follow the child's birth, especially in winter.

*Cap.*—If it is used, the cap should be made lightly, either of muslin or in crochet. It is wiser to accustom the child to do without it.

*Cleanliness.*

*Care of the skin.*—The different parts of the child's clothing must be frequently renewed; the chemises and the vests at least once every two days; the swaddling band every time that it has been soiled, at night as well as in the day.

\* *Ville de Bruxelles.*—*Économie Maternelle. Hygiène de l'Enfance (Cours de l'École Ménagère).* Brussels, 1904.

Each time that the child has soiled its swaddling band, that part of the body must be washed, dried with a soft linen and then powdered with powder of amydon or lycopodium.

It is the only way to avoid the chapping and excoriations which cause the child so much suffering.

*Washing and baths.*—A general rapid washing should be done every day over all the parts of the body ; it is preferable to replace it by a very short bath in tepid water of 30° to 35° C. during the first months ; the temperature of the water should be lowered gradually. The temperature of the room in which the bath is taken should be from 15° to 16° C.

Refined soap must be used for the child's toilet : marshmallow or glycerine soap.

If the child's skin is irritated, he (she) should be given baths of amydon water or bran baths.

*Care of the head.*—The child's head should be the object of special care ; it must be washed every day with tepid water, well dried, then brushed with a fine brush. Inflammation of the head—milk-scab, incrustation—is frequent with babies and causes them much suffering ; this inflammation must be attended to without delay in order to avoid the risk of grave difficulties.

*Popular error.*—It is not permissible to cure scalp eruptions lest convulsions or meningitis should be induced.

#### NOURISHMENT.

Milk is the first and the only nourishment proper to a baby ; everything in a child's mouth shows that it should suck, not eat. Nothing can replace milk for the child, but, of all milk, that which suits it best is the mother's.

When the mother is ill and cannot nurse her child, when her occupations do not permit her to do so by day as well as by night, she has recourse to *artificial feeding*, unless she can give the child a nurse, which is preferable.

In *artificial feeding* the child is given the milk of an animal ; cow, ass, sheep, goat, by means of a bottle.

Cow's milk is generally used in our towns ; it differs from that of the woman, but by the addition of water and sugar its composition approaches that of mother's milk.

	Fluids.	Nitric Matter.	Fat.	Sugar.	Salts.	Total.
Mother's milk	- 87·39	2·48	3·90	6·04	0·19	100 parts
Cow's milk	- 87·41	4·41	3·26	4·22	0·70	100 "

The milk is diluted by adding :

During the first month	-	-	-	-	1 litre* of boiled water.
" second and third months	-	-	-	-	" " "
" fourth month	-	-	-	-	" " "

Afterwards cow's milk should be given undiluted.

Milk ferments rapidly, it can also contain dangerous microbes which communicate diseases to children ; therefore it is necessary only to give well-boiled milk.

The feeding-bottle which is easiest to keep clean should be used ; bottles consisting of a bottle closed by the india-rubber teat, without a tube, are the best.

#### *Careful usage of the bottle.*

1. Only boiled milk to be used ;
2. The milk should be pure, not skimmed ;
3. The addition of water and of sugar to be made in the required proportions ;
4. The milk in the bottle should be tepid, 35° to 37° C. ;

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\* 1 litre—1·76 pints.



5. The bottle should only contain the milk for one meal, the surplus must be thrown away ;

6. After each meal the bottle must be well cleaned in all parts by means of a brush and hot boiled water.

Feeding with a bottle demands special supervision and careful understanding, for the majority of diseases of the digestive passages—thrush, infant cholera, enteritis—generally attack children brought up by hand, and are a frequent cause of mortality.

These illnesses can also be caused by inappropriate food.

In order to simplify artificial feeding, by diminishing the causes of mortality, the *Société protectrice des Enfants Martyrs* has instituted a *laiterie maternelle*, rue des Comédiens, 25, at Brussels. The milk sold there is humanised or sterilised milk, which approaches very closely to mother's milk, and is purified from the injurious germs which it may have contained. This preparation is made on the spot under the supervision of Dr. Lust. The new milk steriliser of this doctor has been adopted here as feeding-bottle. Deliveries are made for cash ; ten centimes the bottle.

A distribution of milk at reduced cost, ten centimes a day, or free, is made daily to poor mothers who are prevented from nursing their babies themselves, or especially to mothers whose children are already suffering from bad feeding, sickness, diarrhoea.

#### *Popular errors.*

1. To believe that when a child is brought up by hand it is necessary always to give it the milk of the same cow.

2. To believe that barley water is a food which suffices for the needs of a baby and that it can advantageously replace milk.

3. To believe that a child should be fed with pap from the time its first teeth appear.

#### *Number of meals.*

Whether a child is nursed by its mother or fed with a bottle, it is necessary to observe strict regularity in the times of feeding.

#### *First half-year.*

*First three months.*—By day, feed once every two hours ; at night, once every four hours.

*Following three months.*—By day, once every three hours ; at night, once every six hours.

#### *Second half-year.*

By day, one meal every three hours ; replace one by soup ; at night, food once only, to be completely suppressed finally. We disapprove of the use of any kind of indiarubber teats which are given to children between meals. This bad custom forces a child to make efforts in sucking which are often irring.

#### WEANING.

During the *first six months* the child can only take milk, any other nourishment, being badly digested, is injurious. It is only during the *second half-year*, and while continuing the use of milk, that the child should be given either pap or light soups, consisting of farinaceous foods prepared with milk. These paps and soups should be prepared fresh for each meal.

To begin with, the milk meal must be replaced by one of soup during the day and, in proportion as the teeth become more numerous, the number of these soups will be gradually increased and the number of milk meals must be reduced.

*After the age of one year*, while maintaining milk as the principal nourishment, the child could be given eggs, bread soaked in meat juice, and, eventually, meat chopped fine.

*Until at least two years of age* milk should remain the child's principal food.

*Rules for Weaning.*

It is important :

1. Never to wean a child who has no teeth ;
2. Never to wean a child who is teething ;
3. Never to wean a child during the course of an indisposition or of an illness ;
4. Never to wean a child during the very hot weather ;
5. Never to wean a child suddenly.

**TEETHING.**

Teething is a cause of digestive trouble for a child, that is why nursing must not cease at the moment of cutting the teeth.

The first teeth appear in the following order :—

Front teeth - - - - -	4 to 6 months
Side teeth - - - - -	4 „ 9 „
First small double teeth - - - - -	4 „ 12 „
Eye teeth - - - - -	4 „ 15 „
Second small double teeth - - - - -	4 „ 18 „

**GUM RINGS.**

The child's first toy, the teether, is often intended to soothe the irritation of the gums caused by teething.

A bone or india-rubber ring serves this purpose very well ; orris or marsh-mallow roots, which easily turn sour, must be avoided. Coloured or angular shaped rattles must not be used, as they might cause serious accidents.

**SLEEP.**

Children have an imperative need of sleep, especially during the first days. Babies should be allowed to sleep as much as they wish ; towards the age of six months a child's sleep can be regulated.

Sleep generally follows feeding ; a child should sleep in a cradle, and not in the arms or on the knees of its mother.

The child, in its cradle, should always be laid on its side in order that, if sickness occurs, the liquid flows easily and does not enter the respiratory channels.

The child must not be allowed to sleep with anyone (asphyxia), must not be accustomed to rocking, and use must not be made of narcotics, which have often caused deplorable accidents.

It is necessary to accustom a child to get up early and to go to bed at the hour when, from fatigue or by habit, it goes to sleep immediately.

After the child's sleep, the cradle should be aired.

**GOING OUT.**

Pure air, like nourishment, is a food which sustains life.

A child must have air baths by being exposed as often as possible to the open air ; in this way it will be submitted to the influence of full light, which is as necessary for it as air.

A child can be taken out without harm in hot weather (summer) at the end of a week ; in mild weather (spring, autumn) at the end of a fortnight ; in cold weather (winter) at the end of a month.

**PERAMBULATORS.**

Perambulators are not good for quite little children, whom they expose to tiring and sometimes dangerous jolting ; the arms of the mother or the nurse are much more suitable for them until they have the strength to sit up and to change their position.

## WALKING—EXERCISE.

Under our conditions of climate and race, a well-nourished child begins to walk when it is a year old. All methods intended to force the act of walking must be avoided, straps or reins, wicker-baskets, wooden carriages ; nothing is more inclined to deform the legs, the pelvis, and the spine. It is preferable to assist the baby in its first attempts by supporting it under both arms.

When it is necessary to lift a child over an obstacle, care must be taken to hold it with open hands, under the arms, otherwise there is a risk of dislocating its shoulder or wrist.

The child should be made to do some well regulated gymnastic movements favourable to its development.

## VACCINATION.

Vaccination is the best preventive of small-pox.

Except in the case of an epidemic of small-pox, a child can be vaccinated from the age of two months.

From the third to the tenth day which follows vaccination the child cannot go out, because it is then more sensitive to variations of temperature.

Baths will be suppressed during the same time. The vaccinated part must be protected by a little shield with cotton wool.

\* \* \* \*

## DANGEROUS REMEDIES.

Certain very dangerous substances are sometimes used by ignorant mothers.

Such are : decoction of poppy seeds, laudanum, to induce sleep ; an emetic to produce sickness. These remedies have often caused accidents, sometimes fatal accidents.

Nor must mustard poultices be applied to the calves of a child's legs if it is threatened with convulsions ; it is well known that the pain caused by the mustard poultice may itself provoke convulsions with little children.

If the child is not in good health, it is best to submit it to a doctor for examination, for it may be attacked by serious illness without the symptoms being apparent.

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## APPENDIX D.

NUMBER OF ECOLES-GARDIENNES UNDER STATE INSPECTION.  
1905.

PROVINCE.	ECOLÉS-GARDIENNES.			CHILDREN.	CHILDREN IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS.	NO. OF SCHOOLS.	TOTAL POPULATION.
	COMMUNAL.	ADOPTED.	TOTAL.				
Antwerp -	42	170	212	31,311	115,903	545	559,746
Brabant -	116	243	359	43,670	163,327	998	828,324
West Flanders -	18	336	354	33,324	103,792	716	750,230
East Flanders -	71	361	432	53,009	138,110	817	923,495
Hainault -	399	290	689	49,524	137,471	1,338	997,165
Liège -	113	115	228	20,224	100,971	920	695,668
Limbourg -	6	85	91	6,855	35,571	381	523,292
Luxembourg -	41	98	139	6,836	31,591	666	878,728
Namur -	93	174	267	3,396	43,073	763	621,091
	899	1,872	2,771	258,149	869,811	7,144	6,777,739

46 Crèches for population of 479,488 under 3 years.  
2,771 Ecoles-Gardiennes, containing 258,149 children out of population of 446,134 (3-6).

s.--190'

10  
200  
10,400  
1,300  
200  
170  
900  
120  
110  
45

13,245

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S.--1907.

10 200	11 200	12 250	13 200	14 200	TOTAUX. 3,400
10,400 „	15,500 „	14,100 „	9,700 „	5,800 „	195,800 „
1,300 „	1,000 „	1,000 „	1,100 „	900 „	16,490 „
200 „	200 „	250 „	200 „	200 „	3,299 „
170 „	170 „	212 50	170 „	170 „	2,804 10
900 „	950 „	950 „	950 „	950 „	14,500 „
120 „	170 „	330 „	300 „	300 „	2,595 „
110 „	105 „	125 „	125 „	135 „	1,765 „
45 „	70 „	60 „	80 „	80 „	995 „
13,245 „	18,165 „	17,027 50	12,625 „	8,535 „	238,248 10
ent du personnel en disponibilité	-	-	-	-	fr. 3,925 „
ent de l'Inspectrice	-	-	-	-	4,800 „
tations normales et application du nouveau barème	-	-	-	-	13,500 „
res (réserve)	-	-	-	-	500 „
enses	-	-	-	-	1,500 „
s et frais de bureau	-	-	-	-	1,000 „
-	-	-	-	-	626 90
el intérimaire et gardiennat	-	-	-	-	6,500 „
n et surveillance des appareils de chauffage	-	-	-	-	5,000 „
n des appareils d'éclairage	-	-	-	-	500 „
xcursions	-	-	-	-	500 „
tions à charge de la Ville	-	-	-	-	800 „
ement des gens de service malades	-	-	-	-	500 „
Total, fr.					277,900 „



## APPENDIX F.

## TOTAL COST OF ECOLES-GARDIENNES IN BELGIUM, 1904.

## I.—ECOLÉ-GARDIENNES (COMMUNAL AND ADOPTED).

	Francs.
State - - - - -	748,355
Provinces - - - - -	67,614
Communes - - - - -	2,145,477
Charitable Bureaux - - - - -	48,727
Endowments and other Sources - - - - -	34,573
School Fees - - - - -	30,217
Deficit - - - - -	59,446
Total - - - - -	<u>3,134,409 francs.</u>

## II.—ECOLÉ-GARDIENNES (PRIVATE WITH GRANT).

	Francs.
State - - - - -	560,716
Provinces - - - - -	11,659
Communes - - - - -	23,653
Total - - - - -	<u>596,028 francs.</u>

VILLE DE BRUXELLES.  
ENSEIGNEMENT PRIMAIRE.  
GARÇONS.

APPENDIX G.  
(See page 26.)

CARTE SANITAIRE SCOLAIRE.

Jardin d'enfants No. \_\_\_\_\_  
Écoles primaires { No. \_\_\_\_\_  
No. \_\_\_\_\_  
No. \_\_\_\_\_

Nom et prénoms : \_\_\_\_\_

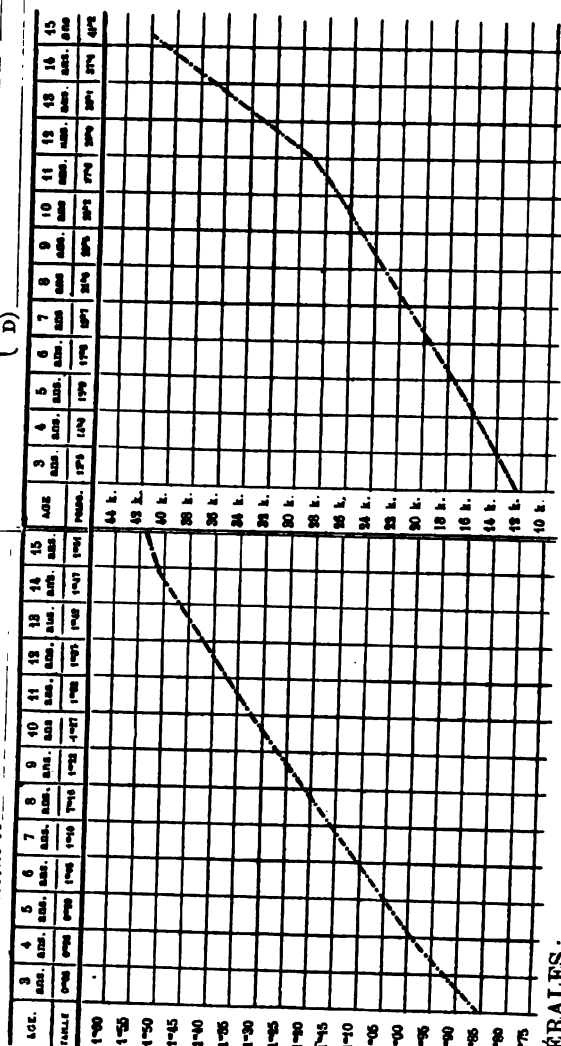
Lieu et date de naissance : \_\_\_\_\_

Vacciné le : \_\_\_\_\_

Revacciné le : \_\_\_\_\_

Domiciles : {

A) \_\_\_\_\_  
B) \_\_\_\_\_  
C) \_\_\_\_\_  
D) \_\_\_\_\_



N.B. — In the original the dotted line is printed in red in order that it may not be confused with the line drawn for each child. (See page 26.)

OBSERVATIONS GÉNÉRALES :

N.B. — Les moyennes adoptées sont celles de Quetelet.

Le Directeur





## APPENDIX H.

### RULES FOR THE EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS IN ECOLES-GARDIENNES, JUNE 17TH, 1898.

#### *A.—Written Examination.*

##### *Part I. Principles of Morality and Right Living :*

*Duty towards God.*—Importance and necessity of these duties ; their object.

*Duty towards Self.*—Necessity of self-preservation ; condemnation of suicide ; cleanliness ; hygiene ; gymnastics ; temperance. Love of work ; happiness it produces, order, economy, saving, moral benefits of saving. Duty of self-instruction and improvement. Power of "self-help" ; prudence, respect for truth, reverence for the given word, courage, personal dignity.

*Duty towards the Family.*—The family the foundation of society ; family happiness. Marriage and its duties ; obligations on those who marry to know the duties to be fulfilled. Rights and duties of parents towards their children ; paternal and maternal love. Duties of children towards their parents, filial love the first duty including all others, respect, obedience, help. Shameful conduct of children who refuse to help their parents. Duties of children towards one another. Mutual interdependence of the family. Duties of teacher and pupils ; need for teacher to possess love of little children ; her mission. Duties of master and servant.

*Duty towards Mankind.*—Duties of justice. These are included in this fundamental maxim : " Do not unto others what you would not they should do unto you." Respect for the life of others ; condemnation of murder. Respect for the liberty of others ; personal freedom, slavery, serfdom. Respect for property ; origin of property ; binding character of promises and contracts ; theft, fraud. Duty of restoring things wrongly acquired and of repairing the wrong done to another. Respect for the honour and reputation of others. Calumny, defamation and slander. Respect for beliefs ; liberty of conscience, tolerance.

*Duties of Charity.*—The duties of charity are summed up in the maxims : " Love thy neighbour as thyself " and " Do unto others as you would they should do unto you." The duties of charity are binding on each of us according to the measure of our possessions. Charity should help poor children to develop their physical, intellectual, and moral faculties, and prepare them to earn their own living. Begging. Devotion and sacrifice.

*Civic Duties.*—Love of country ; respect for the Constitution ; obedience to laws ; respect due to public authorities ; duties of those in authority. Defence of country ; obligation on every citizen to contribute both service and money. Political duties. Courage.

*" Savoir-vivre."*—Politeness ; rules to be observed in the varying circumstances of life.

##### *Part II. Pedagogy and Method :*

*Education in general*, and in Ecoles-Gardiennes. The object, importance and organisation of education. Special object of infant education. Rôle of the family and of the school in early training. Mission of a teacher in an Ecole Gardienne—qualities necessary for success.

*Physical Education.*—Its object and importance in Ecoles-Gardiennes. Duties and responsibilities of a teacher in an Ecole-Gardienne in respect of school hygiene, gymnastic exercises and infant games.

*Intellectual and Moral Training.*—Simple distinction between the three important mental faculties : understanding, feeling and will. Way in

which these act and react on one another ; necessity of cultivating them harmoniously. Danger of overworking or wrongly working young minds. General principles of education which result from these observations.

*Understanding.*—That which is understood by outward perception ; conscience, reason. How the teacher of the Ecole-Gardienne should work at training the senses. How she should arouse and direct attention, the spirit of observation and reflection. How she should cultivate judgment and reasoning power. Memory and imagination ; means by which the teacher in an Ecole-Gardienne can encourage the regular working of these faculties.

*Feeling.*—Ways in which the feeling for and love of Truth, Beauty, Right, God, show themselves ; what the teacher should do to brighten, direct and strengthen these feelings.

*Inclinations and Tastes.*—Ways to encourage those that are good and to fight against those which tend toward evil.

*Will.*—What is meant by will-power and personality. The meaning of command and obedience. How to inspire the child with the feeling of responsibility. Influence of practice and example in the education of young children.

*General Method.*—Fundamental principles of the methods of elementary teaching. Explain carefully the following : The teacher of the Ecole-Gardienne endeavours above all to develop the spontaneous and free activity of the child. She makes her teaching thoroughly intuitive ; she brings before the childish intelligence the real object, before giving its name. She passes from that which is near to that which is far, from the simple to the composite, from the concrete to the abstract. She tries to induce associations of ideas and to make the children realise the link which unites work, games, and connected exercises. She often returns to the same idea, but presents it in a different form. She is careful in her use of the Socratic form as well as the dogmatic. She early accustoms the child to express quite simply, but correctly, the result of its observations, as well as its thoughts and feelings.

*Special Method.*—Exercises and gymnastic games ; their object in the Ecole-Gardienne ; time to be devoted to them ; the nature and order of exercises and games. How to direct them and get them carried out.

*Training in Thought and Expression, and Recitation.*—Object, nature and choice. How to proceed.

*Songs learnt by Ear.*—Style of songs to be used. Plan to follow in teaching them. Conditions of good performance.

*Manual Occupations based on the Froebel System.*—The nature and object of these occupations (folding and cutting of paper ; weaving ; plaiting ; designing ; little sticks, tablets, cubes, rectangles ; gardening). Tools necessary for each of these. Fundamental principles to be observed in directing them. How to proceed.

*First Elements of Reading, Writing, and Spelling.*—Choice of a method. Simultaneous teaching of reading, writing, and spelling. Articulation. Progressive order of lessons. Methods to be employed in teaching. Essential conditions of reading books. Rules to be observed in reading. What the teacher should do to make the reading and writing lessons a rational preparation for the lessons of the primary school.

*Arithmetic.*—Advantages of combining mental arithmetic with written work. Selection and employment of intuitive methods. Logical order of exercises. Method.

*Part III. Mother Tongue.*—Composition (descriptions, narratives, letters, essays on themes drawn from natural objects ; industry and commerce ; on moral duties ; the duties of a teacher and the ordinary relations of life).

*Part IV. Elements of Arithmetic* and of the legal system of weights and measures. Exercises on the first four fundamental rules applied to whole numbers and to decimals. Solution of problems dealing with

the system of weights and measures in domestic economy. Questions of simple interest, of discount, averages and proportion. Savings banks and investments.

*Part V. Geography.*—Elementary ideas of the world and its general divisions; Orientation; longitude and latitude; day and night; the seasons; phases of the moon; eclipses; comets. Size and position of the five divisions of the world, and the chief oceans; chief lines of navigation.

*Belgium.*—Limits, chief natural divisions; productions, industry and commerce; principal railways and navigable channels; short account of each of the nine provinces, tracing outlines and maps from memory.

*Europe.*—Short account of the coasts, seas, principal gulfs, straits, large islands and peninsulas, chief commercial ports. Chief mountain chains, rivers and streams, chief countries (situation, government, important towns, industrial and commercial relations with Belgium).

*Asia, Africa, America, Oceania.*—Boundaries, seas, commercial ports principal States and their capitals.

*Part VI. History of Belgium.*—Short account of the Conquest of Belgium by the Romans, and the state of Belgium under Roman dominion. Occupation of the Franks in Belgium. Social condition of Belgium in the sixth and eighth centuries. Introduction and progress of Christianity in Belgium; monasteries. General idea of wars and institutions of Charlemagne. Feudal rule in Belgium; castles, private wars, etc. Facts connected with the first and fourth crusade. Belgian communes; their progressive development from the 11th to the 14th century; franchises and privileges; trades and corporations; industry and commerce; fairs and markets. Strife between Flemish communes and Kings of France—Breydel and De Coninck; Jacques and Philip Van Artevelde. The House of Burgundy in Belgium, reunion of Belgian provinces under Philip the Good; strife between the chief communes and the Burgundian Princes. Social condition of Belgium in the 15th century. Charles V. Extent of his power; political organisation of Belgium; revolt of the Men of Ghent, commercial wealth of Antwerp. Chief events in the revolution of the 16th century; Spanish soldiers in Belgium; creation of new Bishopsrics, excesses of the Iconoclasts, execution of Counts Egmont and Horne. Pacification of Ghent, success of Alexander Farnese; condition of Belgium at the end of the reign of Philip II. Albert and Isabella, remarkable events in the reign of Maria Theresa in Belgium and of Joseph II.; Belgium under French rule. Revolution of 1830. A few ideas on the rights and liberties of the Belgian constitution and on the organisation of the authority of the State. The reigns of Leopold I. and II.

*Part VII. General Hygiene.*—The body. Necessary care of the skin, of the mouth and teeth, hair and nails. Toilet preparations. Exercise, work and rest. Food. Rules essential to a good dietary, initial value of principal foods and drinks. Use and abuse of foods and drinks. Adulteration. Drinkable, suspicious and contaminated water; filtering and supply. Alcohol, its ravages from a physical, intellectual, and moral point of view. Clothes. Choice of clothes according to the seasons and varieties of temperature. Cleanliness. Headgear and shoes. Danger of tight clothes. Houses. Situation, general arrangements, causes of unhealthiness; ventilation, lighting, warming; furniture and bedding. Disinfectants.

*School Hygiene.*—Air, pure and bad; cause of bad air in school; ventilation, danger of draught. Precautions. Light. Lighting of school rooms; arrangement of the desks; danger of the reflection from glossy pictures, cards, etc. Some exercises that demand close strain on eyesight; various precautions. Temperature: Rules concerning heat and cold, application of these rules; warming apparatus. Precautions. Furniture: Importance of proper arrangement of desks and other furniture for the use of children. Injurious positions and attitudes; their effects.

*Gymnastics and Games.*—Their necessity. Their management and supervision. Precautions. Accidents; First aid to give in cases of cuts, burns, sprains, bites, hæmorrhage, indigestion, suffocation, poison, etc.; use of the school medicine chest.

*Infectious Complaints.*—First symptoms of these maladies. Duty of teacher. Suggestions on the following subjects :—arrangement of time and work ; cleanliness of the building ; warming and airing of classes, arrival and leaving of children, recreations, contagious diseases, corporal punishment, vaccination.

There is a paper, lasting 1 to 1½ hours, on each of these 7 subjects ; 20 marks is given for the 1st, 3rd, and 4th sections, 40 for the 2nd, and 10 each for the last 3 ; 130 marks in all.

#### B.—Oral Examination.

This is a Viva Voce Test, the first part being on the *langue maternelle* ; reading, with expression, an easy piece in prose or verse, the rapid explanation of a piece with regard to manner and matter, a few remarks on spelling, syntax and punctuation.

*Geometric Forms.*—Straight lines and their various positions, different sorts of angles. Essential properties of triangles, squares, rectangles, parallelograms. Regular polygons, short analysis of prisms, right and oblique, and of pyramids, right and oblique. Properties of circle and circumference. Short analysis of cylinder, cone and sphere.

*Elementary Ideas on Natural Science.*—*Man* : Short account of a skeleton, functions of bones, muscles, nerves ; simple explanation of the organs of sense, healthy care of these organs ; elementary explanation of the digestion, respiration and circulation. *Animals* : Functions and description of the following : the horse, ass, pig, cow, sheep, goat, dog, cat, fox, lion, bear, wolf, bat, frog, toad, lizard, slow-worm, fowl, pigeon, duck, goose, swallow, warbler, nightingale, tom-tit, lark, sparrow, snake, snail, mole, bee, cockchafer, wasp. The description of these animals will bear especially on their external form, their habits, the services they render, and their dangers. *Plants* : Short account of plant life (root, stem, flower, fruit). Description of the following plants : Wheat, rye, barley, oats, potato, haricot, peas, linseed, carrots, cabbage, mushrooms. Flowers to grow in pots in school or garden ; poisonous plants of the country which children are inclined to touch. *Minerals* : Clay, sand, salt, carbon and metals.

*Elementary Ideas of Physics.*—General properties of bodies ; divisibility, porosity, compressibility, elasticity, gravity, weight, centre of gravity. Lever, ordinary balance. *Ideas on Equilibrium of Liquids* : fountains, communicating vessels, etc. *The Air* : Atmospheric pressure, barometer, suction pump. *Warmth* : Expansion, thermometer, change in condition of bodies. *Water* : Boiling, evaporation, mist, cloud, rain, snow, hail, dew. *Light* : Solar spectre, rainbow, colours. *Sound* : Echo, resounding.

These three oral subjects are taken for 20 minutes each, and 55 marks given for the whole.

#### C.—Practical Examination.

*Drawing.*—Freehand design ; tracing and divisions of straight lines ; angles and polygonal figures with applications, tracing and division of circumference ; ornament ; ellipses, ovals, spirals, interlacing and various patterns with curves and lines ; leaves and natural flowers. Useful designs for embroidery. *Song* : Learnt by ear. *Gymnastics* : One exercise illustrated out of a Teacher's Book by Docx.

#### D.—Examination in Teaching.

Two tests for each candidate, one chosen from manual occupations based on Froebel system, another from the section dealing with thought, language and repetition.

The four subjects in these last two divisions can gain 115 marks ; the last alone can gain 60.

## APPENDIX J.

## DISTRIBUTIONS DE VÊTEMENTS DANS LES JARDINS D'ENFANTS PENDANT L'ANNÉE 1906-1907.

Désignation de l'école.	Comités de Charité		Œuvres Diverses.		Comités Scolaires.		Comité De la Foire.		Vêtements contrec- tées dans les écoles primaires au moyen de fournitures de travaux manuels.	Jouets.	Dons en Argent.	Nombre d'enfants qui ont bénéficié des dons de vêtements.
	Cos- tumes compl.	Vête- ments divers.	Costumes compl.	Vêtements divers.	Costumes complets.	Vêtements divers.	Cos- tumes compl.	Vête- ments divers.				
1	—	—	13	80	35	237	—	12	—	279	Francs. 20 "	234
2	—	—	13	404	6	196	—	6	—	277	20 "	148
3	—	—	—	190	—	351	—	17	—	190	—	190
4	—	—	11	78	18	865	—	—	—	175	107 "	140
5	—	—	170	590	—	1,136	—	100	—	600	164 "	600
6	—	—	15	81	—	175	—	—	—	300	20 "	190
7	—	—	13	75	—	24	—	—	—	300	10 "	71
8	—	—	12	98	12	373	—	—	—	386	—	139
9	—	—	12	75	20	764	—	—	—	374	15 70	190
10	—	—	8	58	6	300	—	—	34	100	45 "	94
11	—	—	20	110	—	141	—	—	—	184	—	165
12	24	62	24	207	—	—	—	7	—	190	—	190
13	—	—	35	155	126	884	—	4	—	300	—	292
14	—	—	8	261	—	3	—	—	—	143	50 "	85
Totaux	24	62	354	2,462	223	5,449	—	146	34	3,798	451 70	2,628

## APPENDIX K.

## VILLE DE BRUXELLES.

## JARDINS D'ENFANTS,

## Distribution du travail.

De 8 à 8½	8½ à 9½	9½ à 10½	10½ à 11½	11½ à 12½	12½ à 13½	13½ à 14½	14½ à 15½	15½ à 16½	16½ à 17½	17½ à 18½	18½ à 19½	19½ à 20½	20½ à 21½	21½ à 22½	22½ à 23½	23½ à 24½	24½ à 25½	25½ à 26½	26½ à 27½	27½ à 28½	28½ à 29½	29½ à 30½	30½ à 31½	31½ à 32½	32½ à 33½	33½ à 34½	34½ à 35½	35½ à 36½	36½ à 37½	37½ à 38½	38½ à 39½	39½ à 40½	40½ à 41½	41½ à 42½	42½ à 43½	43½ à 44½	44½ à 45½	45½ à 46½	46½ à 47½	47½ à 48½	48½ à 49½	49½ à 50½	50½ à 51½	51½ à 52½	52½ à 53½	53½ à 54½	54½ à 55½	55½ à 56½	56½ à 57½	57½ à 58½	58½ à 59½	59½ à 60½	60½ à 61½	61½ à 62½	62½ à 63½	63½ à 64½	64½ à 65½	65½ à 66½	66½ à 67½	67½ à 68½	68½ à 69½	69½ à 70½	70½ à 71½	71½ à 72½	72½ à 73½	73½ à 74½	74½ à 75½	75½ à 76½	76½ à 77½	77½ à 78½	78½ à 79½	79½ à 80½	80½ à 81½	81½ à 82½	82½ à 83½	83½ à 84½	84½ à 85½	85½ à 86½	86½ à 87½	87½ à 88½	88½ à 89½	89½ à 90½	90½ à 91½	91½ à 92½	92½ à 93½	93½ à 94½	94½ à 95½	95½ à 96½	96½ à 97½	97½ à 98½	98½ à 99½	99½ à 100½	100½ à 101½	101½ à 102½	102½ à 103½	103½ à 104½	104½ à 105½	105½ à 106½	106½ à 107½	107½ à 108½	108½ à 109½	109½ à 110½	110½ à 111½	111½ à 112½	112½ à 113½	113½ à 114½	114½ à 115½	115½ à 116½	116½ à 117½	117½ à 118½	118½ à 119½	119½ à 120½	120½ à 121½	121½ à 122½	122½ à 123½	123½ à 124½	124½ à 125½	125½ à 126½	126½ à 127½	127½ à 128½	128½ à 129½	129½ à 130½	130½ à 131½	131½ à 132½	132½ à 133½	133½ à 134½	134½ à 135½	135½ à 136½	136½ à 137½	137½ à 138½	138½ à 139½	139½ à 140½	140½ à 141½	141½ à 142½	142½ à 143½	143½ à 144½	144½ à 145½	145½ à 146½	146½ à 147½	147½ à 148½	148½ à 149½	149½ à 150½	150½ à 151½	151½ à 152½	152½ à 153½	153½ à 154½	154½ à 155½	155½ à 156½	156½ à 157½	157½ à 158½	158½ à 159½	159½ à 160½	160½ à 161½	161½ à 162½	162½ à 163½	163½ à 164½	164½ à 165½	165½ à 166½	166½ à 167½	167½ à 168½	168½ à 169½	169½ à 170½	170½ à 171½	171½ à 172½	172½ à 173½	173½ à 174½	174½ à 175½	175½ à 176½	176½ à 177½	177½ à 178½	178½ à 179½	179½ à 180½	180½ à 181½	181½ à 182½	182½ à 183½	183½ à 184½	184½ à 185½	185½ à 186½	186½ à 187½	187½ à 188½	188½ à 189½	189½ à 190½	190½ à 191½	191½ à 192½	192½ à 193½	193½ à 194½	194½ à 195½	195½ à 196½	196½ à 197½	197½ à 198½	198½ à 199½	199½ à 200½	200½ à 201½	201½ à 202½	202½ à 203½	203½ à 204½	204½ à 205½	205½ à 206½	206½ à 207½	207½ à 208½	208½ à 209½	209½ à 210½	210½ à 211½	211½ à 212½	212½ à 213½	213½ à 214½	214½ à 215½	215½ à 216½	216½ à 217½	217½ à 218½	218½ à 219½	219½ à 220½	220½ à 221½	221½ à 222½	222½ à 223½	223½ à 224½	224½ à 225½	225½ à 226½	226½ à 227½	227½ à 228½	228½ à 229½	229½ à 230½	230½ à 231½	231½ à 232½	232½ à 233½	233½ à 234½	234½ à 235½	235½ à 236½	236½ à 237½	237½ à 238½	238½ à 239½	239½ à 240½	240½ à 241½	241½ à 242½	242½ à 243½	243½ à 244½	244½ à 245½	245½ à 246½	246½ à 247½	247½ à 248½	248½ à 249½	249½ à 250½	250½ à 251½	251½ à 252½	252½ à 253½	253½ à 254½	254½ à 255½	255½ à 256½	256½ à 257½	257½ à 258½	258½ à 259½	259½ à 260½	260½ à 261½	261½ à 262½	262½ à 263½	263½ à 264½	264½ à 265½	265½ à 266½	266½ à 267½	267½ à 268½	268½ à 269½	269½ à 270½	270½ à 271½	271½ à 272½	272½ à 273½	273½ à 274½	274½ à 275½	275½ à 276½	276½ à 277½	277½ à 278½	278½ à 279½	279½ à 280½	280½ à 281½	281½ à 282½	282½ à 283½	283½ à 284½	284½ à 285½	285½ à 286½	286½ à 287½	287½ à 288½	288½ à 289½	289½ à 290½	290½ à 291½	291½ à 292½	292½ à 293½	293½ à 294½	294½ à 295½	295½ à 296½	296½ à 297½	297½ à 298½	298½ à 299½	299½ à 300½	300½ à 301½	301½ à 302½	302½ à 303½	303½ à 304½	304½ à 305½	305½ à 306½	306½ à 307½	307½ à 308½	308½ à 309½	309½ à 310½	310½ à 311½	311½ à 312½	312½ à 313½	313½ à 314½	314½ à 315½	315½ à 316½	316½ à 317½	317½ à 318½	318½ à 319½	319½ à 320½	320½ à 321½	321½ à 322½	322½ à 323½	323½ à 324½	324½ à 325½	325½ à 326½	326½ à 327½	327½ à 328½	328½ à 329½	329½ à 330½	330½ à 331½	331½ à 332½	332½ à 333½	333½ à 334½	334½ à 335½	335½ à 336½	336½ à 337½	337½ à 338½	338½ à 339½	339½ à 340½	340½ à 341½	341½ à 342½	342½ à 343½	343½ à 344½	344½ à 345½	345½ à 346½	346½ à 347½	347½ à 348½	348½ à 349½	349½ à 350½	350½ à 351½	351½ à 352½	352½ à 353½	353½ à 354½	354½ à 355½	355½ à 356½	356½ à 357½	357½ à 358½	358½ à 359½	359½ à 360½	360½ à 361½	361½ à 362½	362½ à 363½	363½ à 364½	364½ à 365½	365½ à 366½	366½ à 367½	367½ à 368½	368½ à 369½	369½ à 370½	370½ à 371½	371½ à 372½	372½ à 373½	373½ à 374½	374½ à 375½	375½ à 376½	376½ à 377½	377½ à 378½	378½ à 379½	379½ à 380½	380½ à 381½	381½ à 382½	382½ à 383½	383½ à 384½	384½ à 385½	385½ à 386½	386½ à 387½	387½ à 388½	388½ à 389½	389½ à 390½	390½ à 391½	391½ à 392½	392½ à 393½	393½ à 394½	394½ à 395½	395½ à 396½	396½ à 397½	397½ à 398½	398½ à 399½	399½ à 400½	400½ à 401½	401½ à 402½	402½ à 403½	403½ à 404½	404½ à 405½	405½ à 406½	406½ à 407½	407½ à 408½	408½ à 409½	409½ à 410½	410½ à 411½	411½ à 412½	412½ à 413½	413½ à 414½	414½ à 415½	415½ à 416½	416½ à 417½	417½ à 418½	418½ à 419½	419½ à 420½	420½ à 421½	421½ à 422½	422½ à 423½	423½ à 424½	424½ à 425½	425½ à 426½	426½ à 427½	427½ à 428½	428½ à 429½	429½ à 430½	430½ à 431½	431½ à 432½	432½ à 433½	433½ à 434½	434½ à 435½	435½ à 436½	436½ à 437½	437½ à 438½	438½ à 439½	439½ à 440½	440½ à 441½	441½ à 442½	442½ à 443½	443½ à 444½	444½ à 445½	445½ à 446½	446½ à 447½	447½ à 448½	448½ à 449½	449½ à 450½	450½ à 451½	451½ à 452½	452½ à 453½	453½ à 454½	454½ à 455½	455½ à 456½	456½ à 457½	457½ à 458½	458½ à 459½	459½ à 460½	460½ à 461½	461½ à 462½	462½ à 463½	463½ à 464½	464½ à 465½	465½ à 466½	466½ à 467½	467½ à 468½	468½ à 469½	469½ à 470½	470½ à 471½	471½ à 472½	472½ à 473½	473½ à 474½	474½ à 475½	475½ à 476½	476½ à 477½	477½ à 478½	478½ à 479½	479½ à 480½	480½ à 481½	481½ à 482½	482½ à 483½	483½ à 484½	484½ à 485½	485½ à 486½	486½ à 487½	487½ à 488½	488½ à 489½	489½ à 490½	490½ à 491½	491½ à 492½	492½ à 493½	493½ à 494½	494½ à 495½	495½ à 496½	496½ à 497½	497½ à 498½	498½ à 499½	499½ à 500½	500½ à 501½	501½ à 502½	502½ à 503½	503½ à 504½	504½ à 505½	505½ à 506½	506½ à 507½	507½ à 508½	508½ à 509½	509½ à 510½	510½ à 511½	511½ à 512½	512½ à 513½	513½ à 514½	514½ à 515½	515½ à 516½	516½ à 517½	517½ à 518½	518½ à 519½	519½ à 520½	520½ à 521½	521½ à 522½	522½ à 523½	523½ à 524½	524½ à 525½	525½ à 526½	526½ à 527½	527½ à 528½	528½ à 529½	529½ à 530½	530½ à 531½	531½ à 532½	532½ à 533½	533½ à 534½	534½ à 535½	535½ à 536½	536½ à 537½	537½ à 538½	538½ à 539½	539½ à 540½	540½ à 541½	541½ à 542½	542½ à 543½	543½ à 544½	544½ à 545½	545½ à 546½	546½ à 547½	547½ à 548½	548½ à 549½	549½ à 550½	550½ à 551½	551½ à 552½	552½ à 553½	553½ à 554½	554½ à 555½	555½ à 556½	556½ à 557½	557½ à 558½	558½ à 559½	559½ à 560½	560½ à 561½	561½ à 562½	562½ à 563½	563½ à 564½	564½ à 565½	565½ à 566½	566½ à 567½	567½ à 568½	568½ à 569½	569½ à 570½	570½ à 571½	571½ à 572½	572½ à 573½	573½ à 574½	574½ à 575½	575½ à 576½	576½ à 577½	577½ à 578½	578½ à 579½	579½ à 580½	580½ à 581½	581½ à 582½	582½ à 583½	583½ à 584½	584½ à 585½	585½ à 586½	586½ à 587½	587½ à 588½	588½ à 589½	589½ à 590½	590½ à 591½	591½ à 592½	592½ à 593½	593½ à 594½	594½ à 595½	595½ à 596½	596½ à 597½	597½ à 598½	598½ à 599½	599½ à 600½	600½ à 601½	601½ à 602½	602½ à 603½	603½ à 604½	604½ à 605½	605½ à 606½	606½ à 607½	607½ à 608½	608½ à 609½	609½ à 610½	610½ à 611½	611½ à 612½	612½ à 613½	613½ à 614½	614½ à 615½	615½ à 616½	616½ à 617½	617½ à 618½	618½ à 619½	619½ à 620½	620½ à 621½	621½ à 622½	622½ à 623½	623½ à 624½	624½ à 625½	625½ à 626½	626½ à 627½	627½ à 628½	628½ à 629½	629½ à 630½	630½ à 631½	631½ à 632½	632½ à 633½	633½ à 634½	634½ à 635½	635½ à 636½	636½ à 637½	637½ à 638½	638½ à 639½	639½ à 640½	640½ à 641½	641½ à 642½	642½ à 643½	643½ à 644½	644½ à 645½	645½ à 646½	646½ à 647½	647½ à 648½	648½ à 649½	649½ à 650½	650½ à 651½	651½ à 652½	652½ à 653½	653½ à 654½	654½ à 655½	655½ à 656½	656½ à 657½	657½ à 658½	658½ à 659½	659½ à 660½	660½ à 661½	661½ à 662½	662½ à 663½	663½ à 664½	664½ à 665½	665½ à 666½	666½ à 667½	667½ à 668½	668½ à 669½	669½ à 670½	670½ à 671½	671½ à 672½	672½ à 673½	673½ à 674½	674½ à 675½	675½ à 676½	676½ à 677½	677½ à 678½	678½ à 679½	679½ à 680½	680½ à 681½	681½ à 682½	682½ à 683½	683½ à 684½	684½ à 685½	685½ à 686½	686½ à 687½	687½ à 688½	688½ à 689½	689½ à 690½	690½ à 691½	691½ à 692½	692½ à 693½	693½ à 694½	694½ à 695½	695½ à 696½	696½ à 697½	697½ à 698½	698½ à 699½	699½ à 700½	700½ à 701½	701½ à 702½	702½ à 703½	703½ à 704½	704½ à 705½	705½ à 706½	706½ à 707½	707½ à 708½	708½ à 709½	709½ à 710½	710½ à 711½	711½ à 712½	712½ à 713½	713½ à 714½	714½ à 715½	715½ à 716½	716½ à 717½	717½ à 718½	718½ à 719½	719½ à 720½	720½ à 721½	721½ à 722½	722½ à 723½	723½ à 724½	724½ à 725½	725½ à 726½	726½ à 727½	727½ à 728½	728½ à 729½	729½ à 730½	730½ à 731½	731½ à 732½	732½ à 733½	733½ à 734½	734½ à 735½	735½ à 736½	736½ à 737½	737½ à 738½	738½ à 739½	739½ à 740½	740½ à 741½	741½ à 742½	742½ à 743½	743½ à 744½	744½ à 745½	745½ à 746½	746½ à 747½	747½ à 748½	748½ à 749½	749½ à 750½	750½ à 751½	751½ à 752½	752½ à 753½	753½ à 754½	754½ à 755½	755½ à 756½	756½ à 757½	757½ à 758½	758½ à 759½	759½ à 760½	760½ à 761½	761½ à 762½	762½ à 763½	763½ à 764½	764½ à 765½	765½ à 766½	766½ à 767½	767½ à 768½	768½ à 769½	769½ à 770½	770½ à 771½	771½ à 772½	772½ à 773½	773½ à 774½	774½ à 775½	775½ à 776½	776½ à 777½	777½ à 778½	778½ à 779½	779½ à 780½	780½ à 781½	781½ à 782½	782½ à 783½	783½ à 784½	784½ à 785½	785½ à 786½	786½ à 787½	787½ à 788½	788½ à 789½	789½ à 790½	790½ à 791½	791½ à 792½	792½ à 793½	793½ à 794½	794½ à 795½	795½ à 796½	796½ à 797½	797½ à 798½	798½ à 799½	799½ à 800½	800½ à 801½	801½ à 802½	802½ à 803½	803½ à 804½	804½ à 805½	805½ à 806½	806½ à 807½	807½ à 808½	808½ à 809½	809½ à 810½	810½ à 811½	811½ à 812½	812½ à 813½	813½ à 814½	814½ à 815½	815½ à 816½	816½ à 817½	817½ à 818½	818½ à 819½	819½ à 820½	820½ à 821½	821½ à 822½	822½ à 823½	823½ à 824½	824½ à 825½	825½ à 826½	826½ à 827½	827½ à 828½	828½ à 829½	829½ à 830½	830½ à 831½	831½ à 832½	832½ à 833½	833½ à 834½	834½ à 835½	835½ à 836½	836½ à 837½	837½ à 838½	838½ à 839½	839½ à 840½	840½ à 841½	841½ à 842½	842½ à 843½	843½ à 844½	844½ à 845½
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## RÉCAPITULATION.

		Infé- rieure.	Moyenne.	Supé- rieure.
Corps	1er don. La balle - - -	2		
	2e " La boule, le cube et le cylindre - - -	1		
	3e, 4e, 5e, 6e, don. Jeux de construction	3	4	3
Surfaces	Planchettes - - - - -	1	2	2
	Jetons - - - - -	1	1	
	Pliage - - - - -		2	2
	Cartonnage - - - - -			2
	Découpage - - - - -			2
	Tissage - - - - -	2	2	2
Lignes	Bâtons - - - - -	2	3	
	Anneaux avec bâtons - - -			1
	Tressage, entrelacements -	1	3	2
	Lattes - - - - -		1	1
	Dessin - - - - -	2	2	3
Points	Anneaux - - - - -		1	
	Piquage - - - - -		1	1
	Sable, modelage - - - - -	2	1	2
	Perles - - - - -	2	2	2
	Causeries - - - - -	3	3	3
Occupations -		22	28	28

## APPENDIX L.

## COMMUNE DE SCHAERBECK. . ÉCOLE GARDIENNE No. 6.

*Menu for One Week for 50 Children.**Served by Girls of Cours Menagère.**Monday, October 7th, 1907.*

Soup aux pois cassés.  
 Carbonnades flamandes.  
 Gâteau de pommes de terre.  
 Pain. Bière.  
 (5 frs. 22 c.)

*Tuesday, October 8th.*

Soup aux épinades.  
 Rosbif.  
 Pommes de terre.  
 Endives.  
 (6 frs.)

*Wednesday, October 9th.*

Soup aux tomates.  
 Pain de viande hachée.  
 Pommes de terre.  
 Chou bloix.  
 (5 frs. 35 c.)

*Thursday, October 10th.*

Soup aux tomates.  
 Ragout de mouton.  
 Pommes de terre.  
 Haricots.  
 (4 frs. 10 c.)

*Friday, October 11th.*

Soup aux poireaux.  
 Pommes de terre.  
 Endives.  
 Des oeufs.  
 Pommes étuvées  
 Pain. Bière.  
 (4 frs. 98 c.)

*Saturday, October 12th.*

Bouillon.  
 Boeuf bouilli.  
 Pommes de terre.  
 Choux rouges.  
 (5 frs. 42 c.)

For these dinners (some free, some paying 1d.) the Commune of Schaerbeek gives a grant of 2,000 fr. a year, including the Section Menagère and the wages of the mistress.



## APPENDIX M.

## NOTE ON ADENOIDS.

TRANSLATION OF INSTRUCTIONS ISSUED TO THE HEADS OF THE  
COMMUNAL SCHOOLS IN BRUSSELS, 1906.

Teachers often find certain children, particularly in winter during damp weather, suffering from extreme absence of mind, absolute want of attention, and a sort of lethargy which is easily mistaken for laziness. Progress is so slow, intelligence so dormant, that these scholars end by being classed as abnormal. In the majority of cases, the children are neither idle nor abnormal; they are simply suffering from the effects of a malady with which they are affected, the growth of adenoids. If they are examined by a doctor specialising in maladies of the throat and nose, he will perform a very simple and perfectly safe operation, and thus restore their intellectual abilities.

The growth of adenoids is usually due to a mass of small lymphatic tumours, which make breathing through the nose difficult and sometimes impossible.

The result of this affection on the general organism is extremely serious, and it is most important to remove it. It retards development of the mind and affects the memory, it hinders the child's growth, and it may lead to deafness, even to meningitis.

The malady is exceedingly common, and will be recognised by teachers as soon as they know the chief symptoms. It is enough to have examined a few cases of adenoids to recognise them at first sight.

The symptoms are of two classes: those noticeable in school; those discoverable only by an examination made at home.

*Those noticeable at School:* The child's mouth is nearly always open because nasal respiration is blocked by reason of the growth of adenoids. As a result the upper lip is raised, and development ceases.

Adenoids often cause hardness of hearing, which explains the absent or drowsy appearance, characteristic of children suffering from them. They often cause ear troubles and discharge from the ears. The voice has a nasal sound; the child not infrequently stammers; development is slow. The working of the brain is slack, application becomes laborious; the assimilation of new ideas is difficult.

*Symptoms noticeable at Home*—Snoring is a general rule. A cough at night is usual; often there are two or three fits of coughing, or even more, due to the mucous in the larynx, arising from the adenoid growths.

The incontinence of urine is very common; often sleep is troubled by nightmare; the child cries and jumps up in bed with every sign of intense terror.

It is certain that a close enquiry made in the directions above indicated, at school and at home, will bring to light a large number of cases. It is only necessary to bring this situation of things to the notice of the teachers, and they will at once submit a number of children to medical investigation, with a view to advising parents to get the operation done as soon as possible.

## APPENDIX N.

SHORT INSTRUCTIONS ON THE FIRST SYMPTOMS OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES, DRAWN UP FOR THE USE OF THOSE TEACHING IN THE COMMUNAL SCHOOLS, BY THE "SERVICE D'HYGIÈNE" OF THE CITY OF BRUSSELS.

*To the Head and Assistant Teachers of the City of Brussels.*

The spread of infectious complaints being common in the schools, and it being impossible for the school doctors always to send home soon enough children whose presence is a source of danger to their schoolfellows, it is advisable to make known the early symptoms of these diseases to the teachers. Consequently the medical staff of the *Service d'Hygiène* of Brussels has presented to *M. l'Echevin de l'Instruction Publique* the following pages, noting in the shortest possible way the first symptoms whereby each of the maladies which are infectious may be recognised.

*M. l'Echevin* has decided to print and distribute these to all members of the teaching staff.

Of all diseases which may affect the human body, some are only injurious or dangerous to the person affected, others can be caught by contamination or infection. In the first group are all organic diseases; in the second, contagious diseases, such as typhoid fever, scarlatina, &c.

It is therefore necessary, in order to keep the school in a healthy condition, to be able to recognise with certainty the presence of these latter maladies at the very beginning in order to prevent their spreading. The teachers should therefore be in a position to recognise the first unmistakable symptoms.

Unfortunately, it is not possible to realise this ideal state of things, for these illnesses rarely show marked characteristics in their very early stages; indeed, they sometimes elude even the practised and careful eye of a doctor.

Are we then to let the mischief grow and spread without trying to fight it?

Certainly not. For by studying certain general symptoms, one can always recognise the beginnings of serious illness. And if by chance one is mistaken in having attached undue importance to some slight indisposition, no real harm is done and one has the consolation of knowing that no dangerous germs have found a place in the school. Besides this, the child's return home or his isolation cannot but be good for him if he is at all unwell. Any excess of caution could never be blamed in such a case.

We now propose to describe quite briefly and broadly the main features of those complaints which would entitle the teacher to take suitable preventative measures without delay.

To make these symptoms more easily recognised, we will divide infectious complaints into :

- (A) Internal maladies accompanied with fever from the beginning.
- (B) Internal maladies in which the fever is in the early stages only slightly marked.
- (C) Maladies without fever.
- (D) External maladies and skin diseases.

## A.—INTERNAL MALADIES BEGINNING WITH FEVER.

This class includes small-pox, scarlet fever, influenza. The first symptoms which attract attention are an intensely feverish condition, violent headache, unnatural heat of the skin, eyes distinctly bloodshot, a full, hard and quick pulse, extreme depression, physical and intellectual prostration or unusual agitation, sometimes nausea and sickness, stiffness and pain in back and limbs, intense thirst, dryness of the mouth, and a foul tongue.

## B.—INTERNAL MALADIES WITH SLIGHT FEVER.

Diseases of the second class in which fever does not appear in the earliest stage are : Typhoid fever, measles, croup, diphtheria, and chicken-pox.

In the early stages of these illnesses great depression is the rule ; there is weakness of mind and body, with marked inattention. Besides these symptoms, to which may possibly be added high fever, we must also note : in cases of *typhoid fever*, a sort of stupefied expression, continuous pain in the limbs, drowsiness, heaviness in the head, and bleeding of the nose ; in cases of *measles*, a dry and persistent cough, constant sneezing, running of the eyes and nose, and brilliancy of the eyes ; in cases of *croup and diphtheria*, hoarseness, a peculiar cough with a sound such as might be produced in a metal tube. In addition to this, the bottom of the throat is red and swollen, showing white patches which partly cover the tonsils and uvula. The danger of spreading these last two complaints is extreme. *Chicken-pox* is the slightest of these contagious diseases ; it is often only recognisable by the appearance of red pimples on the body, which soon change to spots with little round heads containing humour.

## C.—MALADIES WITHOUT FEVER.

Infectious complaints without fever attending are whooping-cough and acute and granular ophthalmia.

Whooping-cough has at first all the appearance of a cold, only the cough is drier, more persistent, and hacking. The existence of another case in the family simplifies the diagnosis. Later on the complaint can be recognised without any possibility of mistake by certain characteristics.

These are : convulsions caused by fits of continuous coughing, which produce a sort of temporary suffocation, the face becomes purple, the eyes water and the coughing ends in a peculiar sound resembling the crowing of a cock, with vomiting, in which the child brings up a quantity of clear stringy mucus. These attacks cannot be mistaken by anyone who has seen them.

Contagious ophthalmia is recognised by redness of the eyes, swelling of the eyelids and aversion to light, by pain in the eye, and above all by the quantity of suspicious liquid which escapes from the corners and rims of the eyelids.

To the group of non-febrile complaints we must add those diseases of the nervous system the spread of which is not due to any morbid or virulent germ, but which is caused by fear or irritation. These complaints are epilepsy, convulsions, attacks of the nerves, and St. Vitus' Dance or chorea. Children suffering from these spasmodic affections ought at once to be put away from their companions' sight. We think it necessary to enter into this subject at some length, so that the teacher may at once take the necessary steps and describe the symptoms afterwards to the school doctor, when the removal or readmittance of the child can be decided upon.

I. *Epileptic Giddiness*.—The sick child sits down or falls, the face is pale and vacant, the eyes haggard, the upper limbs and features tremble involuntarily ; consciousness returns readily after two or three minutes.

II. *Epilepsy*.—The child turns white, often utters a cry, and falls down unconscious and insensible ; breathing stops, the body stiffens, then is

violently shaken by muscular contortions. The face becomes purple red, the features are distorted and agitated by convulsive movements, the teeth are gnashed, the tongue is often bitten and torn, a frothy, and sometimes bloody, foam forces its way through the lips with a whistling sound; then, after a time, normal breathing returns, the face grows white and the patient sleeps. The child awakes surprised, stupefied and worn out. These attacks vary in number and duration, even with the same child, and at the beginning it may be in perfect health, continuing so in the intervals.

III. *Nervous Attacks*.—This complaint is less serious and only attacks the elder girls in school. Imitation is a powerful factor in its development. The attacks may be brought on by the slightest contradiction. The symptoms are: general agitation, cries, tears, movements more pronounced than in epilepsy, loss of consciousness, slight or incomplete. The patient should be excluded from school until it has been clearly shown that the crisis was accidentally brought on by some mental trouble and is unlikely to reappear.

IV. *Infant Convulsions*.—In infant classes, convulsions may be produced by various causes, such as emotion, fear, indigestion, worms, &c. The child should be isolated and taken home at once.

V. *St. Vitus' Dance (chorea)*.—There is great danger of spreading this complaint by imitation. It is chronic, and consists in the production of involuntary, irregular, and twitching movements, which may involve the whole body or may be limited to one limb, to one side of the body, the neck, or the face. Sometimes very slight, it may nevertheless reach such a point as to prevent walking and destroy all possibility of voluntary movement. All children suffering from this complaint should be sent away from school and should not be allowed to return till unmistakeably and completely cured.

Nervous twitching of the face is a localised form of St. Vitus' Dance, and likewise demands exclusion from school, only, in certain less marked cases, this measure may seem too harsh and decision must be reserved for the doctor.

#### D.—EXTERNAL MALADIES.

In the last class of contagious diseases, we place those which are produced by animal or vegetable parasites existing on the surface of the body. Although a clear description makes it possible to recognise these complaints, it is necessary, in order to justify the exclusion of a suspicious case, that the doctor should confirm the teacher's diagnosis. Whilst waiting for this, it is wiser to isolate the child from its class companions.

These complaints are—(1) The itch; (2) Scalp affections, sub-divided into favus, ringworm and alopecia.

They are recognisable by the following characteristics:—

I. *Itch (animal parasite)*.—It is the result of the presence under the skin of a particular parasite, the *acarus scabiei*. Symptoms: Little blisters, transparent at the top, due to the existence of the *acarus*. It affects principally the clefts of the fingers, wrists, armpits, arms, stomach, &c. These little blisters produce desperate irritation, especially at night. They are nearly always scratched by the child, which causes a brown crust to form. There is constantly a little white or greyish trail beneath the surface of the skin, ending in a sort of dark-coloured point, where the *acarus* lives. The itch can be cured in a few hours if properly treated.

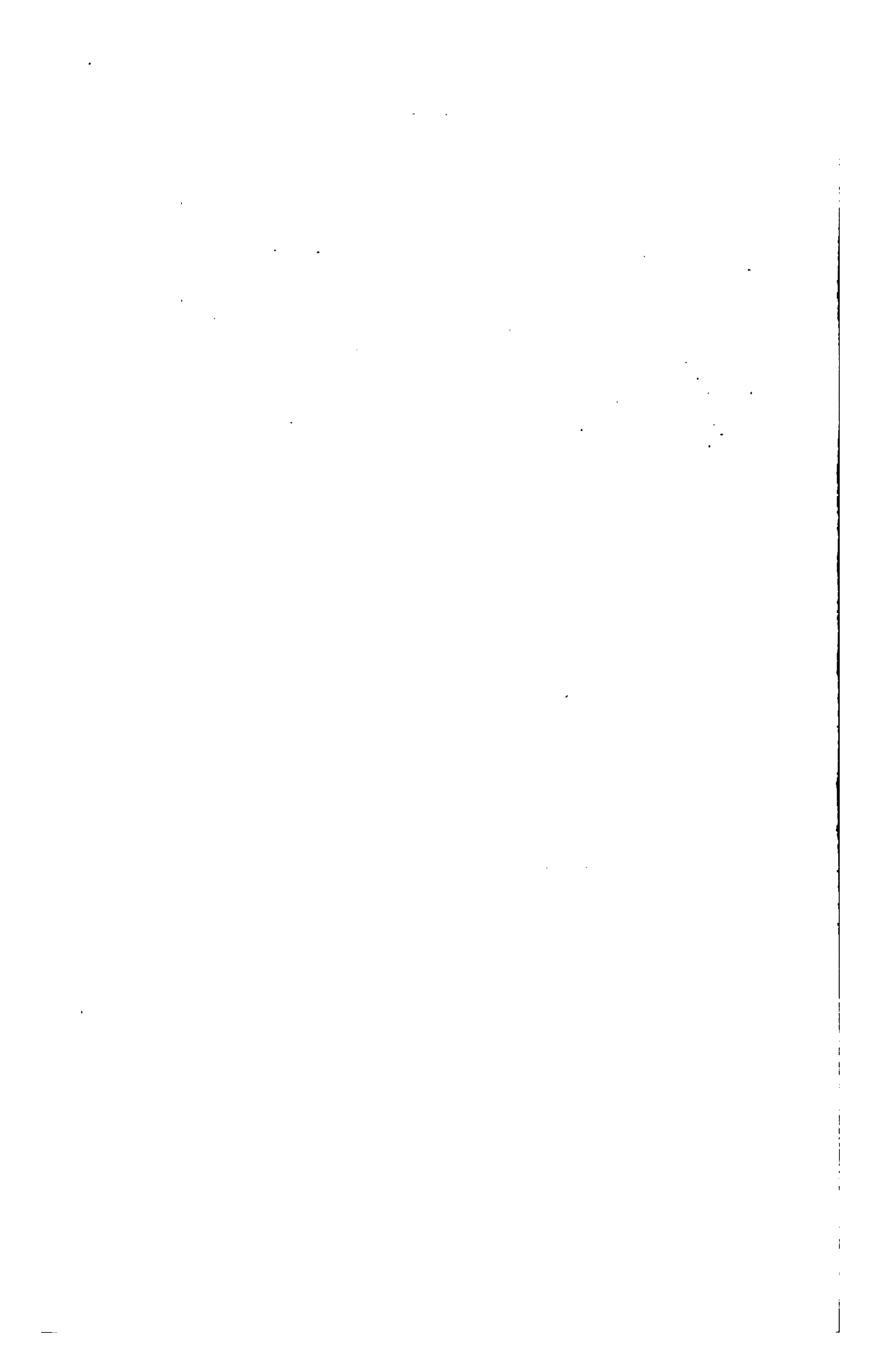
II.—*Scalp affections*. Characterised by vegetable parasites. (a) *Favus (veg.: achorion)*. Generally attacks the head. Symptoms: Little yellowish, circular, unequal cup-shaped crusts, like a piece of honeycomb, hair thin and brittle round these scabs, which may spread over the whole scalp. The irritation is very active. The head has an unpleasant smell. This affection leads to falling-off of the hair and baldness.

(b) *Ringworm* (veg. *trichophyton tonsurans*) appears on the scalp. Symptoms: hair thin, brittle and broken, with less colour than the surrounding hair; from black or brown it becomes reddish or ashen grey; further, the hairs are unevenly broken near the surface of the scalp. The fall of the hair produces a regular tonsure about the size of a florin or larger. The surface of these patches is uneven and rough, and covered with a powdery scurf of a bluish colour.

(c) *Alopecia* (bald patches) (veg. *microsporon*) on all hairy parts, scalp, eyelids, &c. Symptoms: irritation, fall of the hair, preceded often, but not always, by change of colour. The bare patches of varying sizes unite; the skin is soft and extraordinarily white. This complaint, which seems quite harmless, is perhaps the most serious of all the parasitic skin complaints. It remains unobserved for a long time, and may finally leave the body completely deprived of hair.

The habit of children putting on each other's hats is the most common cause of contagion; they should be warned against this reprehensible habit.

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# THE PROVISION MADE IN FRANCE FOR CHILDREN UNDER COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE.

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## THE PROVISION MADE IN FRANCE FOR CHILDREN UNDER COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE.

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### I. CRÈCHES.

#### FOUNDATION AND GROWTH OF CRÈCHES IN FRANCE.

The first crèche was founded in Paris by M. Firmin Marbeau and opened on November 14, 1844. The crèche Ste Marie was entirely the result of private enterprise and was supported by voluntary contributions. It was designed wholly for the little children of working women. "*Pendant que vous gardez l'enfant, le travail garde la Mère.*" It was not free, women were required to pay 20 centimes a day towards the expenses, emphasis being laid on the fact that the crèche was not intended to feed and shelter the children of the indigent poor, but to help those mothers who are obliged to earn their living by working outside their homes.

In 1845 a small pamphlet appeared setting forth the objects, rules and organisation of the crèche de Chaillot and this was awarded a medal and 3,000 francs by the Académie française.

The following year found 14 crèches open in Paris and in many of the large towns of France: Melun, Orléans, Rennes, Tours, Bordeaux, Nantes, Brest, etc. Milan, Brussels, and Vienna had also started crèches after the French model.

In 1847 the Society of Crèches was inaugurated at the Hotel de Ville. (*For rules of this Society see Appendix B.*) Two years later the third public meeting was presided over by M. Dufaure, M. de Falloux, the Minister of Public Instruction and M. Dupin. The same year the work received the warm approval—though unofficial recognition—of Louis Napoleon, President of the French Republic, while M. Thiers openly proclaimed the work of the Society to be a necessary and urgent duty.

In 1852, Louis Napoleon—Prince President—subscribed to the Society 1,000 francs, the Minister of the Interior gave 3,000 francs, the Department of the Seine 600 and the Municipality 1,000 francs.

Still official recognition was withheld from the crèches, although it had long since been given to the *Salles d'Asiles*, which took children from 2 years old to 6. (*See p. 87.*) The question of pauperism raged round the subject. In 1853 the Council of State held a special enquiry, which resulted in favourable reports from the Board of Public Hygiene and Health. Two years later the International Congress of Charity, after close enquiry and discussion, also gave a favourable report, and the following year, on the birth of the Prince Imperial, the Empress Eugenie gave her patronage to the crèches. This was the signal for an Imperial Decree, which was signed by the Emperor Napoleon at the Tuileries on February 26, 1862.

In 1869 the Society of Crèches was further recognised as an establishment of public utility by order dated July, 1869. From this time forward the growth has been rapid. By 1875 there were 29 crèches in Paris, 6 in the suburbs and 100 in other Departments. By 1889 there were 42 crèches in Paris, 18 in the suburbs and 200 in other Departments. By 1903 there were 66 in Paris, 39 in the suburbs and 293 in other Departments, while to-day (1907) there are 68 in Paris, 44 in the suburbs and 322 in other Departments. (*See Appendix A.*)

It is somewhat suggestive to remark here (though the subject is more fully dealt with later) that London, with its 4½ million population has 55 private crèches, while the rest of England has about 19.

#### SUPPORT.

Once the crèche had been recognised as a work of public utility it received generous support from the State, Municipality and Departments. The Minister of the Interior gave grants from 300 to 5,300 francs to 31 crèches in Paris, amounting in the year 1904 to 36,700 francs.

The Ville de Paris gave grants varying from 100 to 7,000 francs to 45 crèches in Paris, amounting in the year 1907 to 167,650 francs. The *Conseil Général* of the Departments gave grants from 400 to 2000 francs to 38 crèches, amounting for the year 1907 to 34,400 francs.

Mothers' contributions from 43 paying crèches amounted in the year 1904 to 57,614 francs.

The Society of Crèches under the Presidency of M. Edouard Marbeau was able to divide the sum of 19,250 francs among 25 crèches in Paris, in the year 1906, besides which there are Subscriptions, Donations, Legacies, the interest on capital, the result of concerts and other entertainments, and a grant from the *Pari-Mutuel*, &c., to swell the funds supporting the crèches.

Besides this the "*Œuvre Nouvelle des Crèches Parisiennes*," under the Presidency of Mme. Cremnitz supports 4 crèches free, on the most approved lines of hygiene, no expense being spared

#### ADMINISTRATION.

No crèche may be opened in Paris without leave from the Prefect of the Department. The order of the Prefect fixes the number of children to be admitted. Every crèche wishing to obtain a Government grant must send in an application to this effect to the Minister of the Interior through the Prefect. In support of the application must be appended a recommendation from the Municipal Council, two copies of the local rules (*see Appendix C*), the receipts and expenditure of the past financial year, the estimate of the coming year, and a note of the size of the wards and the number of children who attend the crèche.

Every crèche receiving a Government grant must be administered by a Council composed of men and women. It may be joined to a Committee of Ladies, who will assist in collecting subscriptions and who will superintend the working of the crèche,

The Mayor of the locality of the crèche must have a seat on the administrative council with the title of honorary President. Every crèche approved by the Government must keep a register containing the Christian name, surname and age of each child, the name, address and profession of its parents, the date of admission, and the physical condition of the child on entering—a register in which the number of children present each day is entered, a register containing observations and prescriptions of the doctor, and a register for the observations of inspectors and visitors.

Every year the President of the Administrative Council shall submit to the Prefect in duplicate an account of receipts and expenses for the past year with some account of the work done. The Prefect, if he approves, must forward a copy to the Minister of the Interior. The administrative authority will have the right of inspection.\*

Owing to the recent suppression of religious orders throughout France, several private crèches have been closed, and others have been refused Government and Municipal grants. To-day, out of the 68 crèches in Paris, 23 are in the hands of *religieuses*, chiefly the Sisters of St. Vincent de Paul. These have ministered free or for a merely nominal wage, and it has been estimated in the reorganisation of expenses that three Sisters would work for the salary of one Directrice.

#### STAFF.

Every crèche is staffed entirely by women, the proportion of attendants to children being about 1 *Berceuse* to every 6 children under the age of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  years, and 1 *Gardiennne* to every 12 children between the age of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  and 3.

At the head of every crèche is a Directrice. No special training is necessary for this post. Beside the Directrice (called *Surveillante* in a small crèche) is a *Berceuse* and a *Gardiennne*. In a large crèche there is also a cook and a laundrymaid.

#### SALARIES.

The salaries vary according to length of service, locality and size of crèche. A Directrice, in addition to board and lodging, receives from 960 to 1,200 francs a year. A *Surveillante*, in addition to board and lodging, receives 800 to 900 francs. Under the old régime a Sister received about 400 francs a year, where service was not given free. A *Berceuse* in Paris receives 10 francs a week plus the washing of aprons and caps and sometimes food. Cook, laundrymaid, &c., receive 2 francs 50 cents a day.

The following table shows the practical working proportion in six crèches visited personally by me:—

						Wages
To 20 children there were 1 Directrice and 2 <i>Berceuses</i>	...	...	...	...	...	2365 francs.
" 20 " " " " " 2 "	...	...	...	...	...	2432 "
" 30 " " " " " 3 "	...	...	...	...	...	3010 "
" 40 " " " " " { 3 "	...	...	...	...	...	4300 "
" 70 " " " " " and 7 in staff	...	...	...	...	...	6037 "
" 70 " " " " " " 7 in staff	...	...	...	...	...	5017 "

\* Crèches may be opened in England without leave or right of inspection.

## DUTIES OF STAFF.

The Directrice personally superintends everything and devotes her whole time to the crèche. She chooses the *Berceuses*, pays them, arranges their work, and trains them in the management of babies. She takes the children each morning from their mothers, refusing any who seem ill, and enters the attendance in a register. She has altogether 5 registers in her charge—(1) Containing a full description of the child. (2) Register of attendance. (3) Register of medical inspection. (4) Visits and remarks of *Dames Patronnesses*. (5) Daily receipts and expenses.

The Directrice further satisfies herself that all the children under her care are equally cared for and attended to, that the air of the room is kept fresh and that a uniform temperature is maintained. She goes round daily with the doctor, reports to him on the children's condition of health and sees that his instructions are faithfully carried out. Any special orders are written on a card attached to each cradle or bed. She takes the mother's fees daily and pays all the daily current expenses, she takes care of the linen, repairs it, orders the food, sterilises or boils the milk for the children and in some crèches dispenses it free to the mothers. She superintends and helps in the washing and bathing of the children. Each bath is reckoned at 10 minutes, and from 18 to 20 baths are given daily between 8 and 10 o'clock. Up to the age of 2½ children are bathed daily, after this age 3 times a week in summer and twice in winter. The Directrice arranges with the mothers who are feeding their children and sees that they consult the doctor once a week while so doing.

The *Berceuses* are entirely under the direction of the Directrice. They must be neatly dressed and keep the crèche and utensils clean. They are required to be courteous and obliging to the mothers, to give to all the children the same devoted care and supply all their wants as tenderly as if they were their own children. They must spend their whole day at the crèche, never absenting themselves without leave. They are sternly forbidden to take any gifts or money from the parents under any pretext whatever, under pain of dismissal. The *Berceuse*, whose duty it is to open the crèche must be there at 5 a.m. She must open the windows, light the stove and get the wards to the right temperature (15° C.). The other *Berceuses* come at 6 a.m. when the cleaning of the crèche begins and continues till eight. Then the children are washed, clothed and fed. At 11 a.m. the elder ones have soup and are put to bed. During their sleeping hours the *Berceuses* have their meal. After each meal the children have their hands and faces washed by the *Berceuses*, who also take them to the lavatories, etc. They have to keep the babies' bottles clean and each mouth-piece labelled and kept in a glass of water. The bottles have no tubes. The *Berceuse* has to make the beds and cradles, all of which are raised from the floor.

In many crèches the post of *Berceuse* is much sought after, as after the training under a good Directrice and some years

experience in a crèche the *Berceuse* is well qualified for a situation as nurse in a private family.

The *Gardiennne* for the older children superintends them in the courtyard or garden; directs their little games, etc.

Crèche washing is all done on the premises, mostly in the basement. I saw an ingenious device in one crèche where by means of a little sort of trap door the soiled linen was precipitated into the washing tub below. For washing, a laundry woman comes by the day or week according to the size of the crèche.

Here are a few specimen items showing cost of washing:—

For a crèche with 8,617 attendances in the year, washing cost 799 fr.

"	"	"	14,357	"	"	"	"	"	1136	"
"	"	"	8,494	"	"	"	"	"	218	"
"	"	"	7,125	"	"	"	"	"	585	"

These statistics (taken from the *Annuaire statistique de la Ville de Paris* for 1904) are very variable. The amounts do not include the wages of the laundrymaid, nor upkeep of laundry.\*

The cooking is entirely done on a gas stove in the kitchen. Details of feeding are given later.

#### DAMES PATRONNESSES.

With authority over the staff and in almost daily attendance at the crèches are the *Dames Patronnesses*, who may be called managers. Their work is entirely voluntary. They are appointed by the Mayor. There are 20 to 30 for each crèche under a Lady President and they divide among themselves the various duties connected with the crèche. The President arranges for each lady to take a certain number of days or weeks in the year to be responsible for the work; the dates and observations of each visit are entered in a register kept by the Directrice. The Manager on duty visits the families from which the children come and makes enquiries in the cases of new applications, etc. With regard to this enquiry, she first verifies the address given by the mother. This is very important, as not infrequently a mother has left her child at the crèche, given a false address and abandoned it altogether. This is specially the case with an illegitimate child. The Manager satisfies herself that the case is genuine; that the mother is really obliged to work away from home, or that her home work is dangerous to infant life. Once admitted, the Manager has to see that the child is brought as regularly as possible, so that the beds may not remain long unoccupied, and this because there is always a fresh risk of infection, and the children are apt to lose the little discipline they receive at the crèche.

If there is much competition for beds, preference is given to the children whose mothers are regularly employed every day in the week. The Managers also give good advice to the mothers on the subject of feeding their children at home. It has been observed that they are often ill on Mondays, after spending the Sunday at home, owing to careless, irregular, or unwholesome

\* For details of a modern laundry, see Appendix E.

food. Again, in cases of real illness, she can see that the child is under proper medical treatment and that the doctor's prescriptions are faithfully carried out.

Inside the crèche the Manager exercises general supervision. She buys and replenishes the linen and children's clothes, attends to the just distribution of duties, to the cleanliness of the bedding, the preparation of the food, the hours of meals; she checks the receipts and expenditure, and, above all, sets an example of gentleness, tenderness and devotion to the staff; indeed, she often spends many hours relieving the staff, nursing the babies, and playing with the elder children.

Lastly, her moral influence makes itself felt throughout the work. In the words of M. Marbeau, President of the Society of Crèches, "The *Dame Patronnesse* is a mother speaking to mothers: it is her heart that appeals to the hearts of those women whose children she watches over and caresses in the cradles of the crèche. It is she who will succeed in arousing an instinct of the ideal in the mind of the child awakened by the presence of the mother: it is she who will safeguard the dignity and morality of the family, who will encourage those mothers, at times weighed down by the necessity of hard and unproductive work: it is she who will assist the movement of social equality by uniting round the infant's cradle the woman who must work through the day apart from her child, with the mother more favoured by fortune, who has no need of working for her daily bread, but who feels it a Christian duty to help her fellow-creatures."

#### CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION.

Children can be received into a crèche without distinction of class or nationality, provided their mothers are obliged to work away from home, or that they work at home under unhealthy conditions. They are admitted at the age of 15 days (in the four Crèches under the "*Œuvre Nouvelle des Crèches Parisiennes*," they are admitted at eight days) and kept to the age of three. They can be kept longer if they are backward or delicate, and not in a fit state to go to the *Ecole Maternelle*.

A mother wishing to place her child in a neighbouring crèche applies to the Directrice for admission, presenting with her application a birth certificate, a certificate of vaccination, or the consent of the parents to subsequent vaccination, the names of persons for reference, and a promise from the mother to observe the rules of the crèche.

These rules must always hang in a conspicuous place near the entrance to the crèche, or in the waiting room. (For a specimen of local rules, see Appendix C.)

The child, if these conditions are satisfactory, must then be shown to the crèche doctor, who will give a certificate of health. If the child is absent through illness for a period exceeding eight days, a fresh medical certificate will be required. After due inspection of the health certificate the child is admitted by the Directrice, or the President of the Committee of Managers.

Each child must be registered on the day of its admission in a register divided into columns with these heads: (1) Surname and Christian name of child. (2) Date of birth. (3) Date of admission and sanitary condition of child as described on the certificate of admission. (4) If fed by mother or bottle. (5) Address of parents. (6) Profession of parents. (7) Date of leaving. (8) Reasons for leaving, and condition of child's health.

The mother is requested to bring the child in a state of cleanliness. While she is feeding it herself she must come regularly to the crèche at least twice a day. She must fetch the child home in the evening before the crèche closes. Access to the wards is usually permitted, on condition that mothers observe the rules of propriety and cleanliness and do not stay long. In some crèches all visiting during the day is forbidden. The mother must always inform the Directrice of the address of her place of business, so that in cases of urgency she can be found at once.

She must pay her contribution (20 centimes for one child and 15 centimes each for two) to the Directrice every morning, and so long as the child is on the crèche register she must show that she is obliged to go to work or is incapable of attending to the child at home.

Illegitimate children are admitted to the crèches after due investigation. But the crèche is not erected to receive those children of whom the mother wishes to rid herself for a few hours.

Several instances are quoted of cases where the enquiry at home has been dispensed with, and the children admitted merely on the application of the mother. One mother brought her baby to the crèche in order that she might exercise her little dog by the fortifications of the town! Another baby was brought regularly on one day in the week to enable its mother—the wife of a young officer—to walk in the country with her husband, unencumbered by the child.

#### FEEs.

With the exception of 9 crèches in Paris and 10 in the Department of the Seine, all crèches demand a small contribution from the mothers. (The 4 crèches under the "*Œuvre Nouvelle des Crèches Parisiennes*" are entirely free.)

The contribution varies slightly according to the average wage of workers within the commune in which the crèche is situated. The average payment is at the rate of 20 centimes for one child and 15 each for two.

In the year 1906 the mothers' payments amounted to the following proportion of the whole:—

					Total receipts.
In Arr. IV.	attendances were 7,943,	mothers' payments 1,402 fr.	out of 12,988		
" XII.	" " 7,722,	" " 1,481 "	" 10,943		
" IX.	" " 6,958,	" " 981 "	" 12,764		
" XVII.	" " 3,561,	" " 699 "	" 6,516		

In the 66 crèches in Paris (1904) the mothers payments amounted to 72,035 francs, the ordinary expenses to be defrayed

being 603,326 francs, hence the mothers' contribution to the support of the crèche amounted to little more than one-eighth of the total expenses.\*

The proportion of children admitted free is small in comparison to those who pay. For instance, in 7 crèches chosen at random, there are 7,191 paid attendances to 750 free; 7,328 to 394 free; 6,542 to 416 free; 3,430 to 451 free; and 5,010 to 758 free.

The French authorities are of opinion that it is impossible to make such an institution self-supporting.

Originally in Paris payment was sternly enforced. When a mother was no longer feeding the child herself she was obliged to bring a basket of food, eggs, milk, etc., to be prepared at the crèche daily. This involved what was considered a salutary sacrifice on the part of the mother. But the food brought in the basket was too often poor in quality, and, from a hygienic point of view, it was considered advisable to feed the child entirely. This was done without increasing the mother's fee.

#### COST OF MAINTENANCE PER CHILD.

If a mother earns about 1 fr. 50 c. to 2 fr. 50 c. a day, she pays about one-tenth of her earnings for the child at the crèche. But this sum is but one-fifth of the whole cost of the child at the crèche per day. M. Marbeau, President of the Society of Crèches, calculates that in Paris and the Department of the Seine the average cost per child per day at the crèche is 1 franc. M. Binet calculates higher, and puts the estimate at 1 fr. 50 c. per day.

The following table gives a selection of crèches in various *Arrondissements*, with their averages, as worked out in their annual reports:—

Rue de la Rochefoucauld (1906)	gives the average cost per day	1 fr. 29 c.
St. Emilie de Clamart (1905)	"	85 c.
(Based on an average of expenses and attendances for five years.)		
Crèche Fourcade (1905)	gives the average cost per day	1 fr. 33 c.
Crèche de Lyon (1905)	"	1 fr. 37 c.
St. Marie des Quinze-Vingts (1906)	gives the average cost per day	1 fr. 15 c.
Crèche de l'Etoile (1906)	"	1 fr. 42 c.
Crèche des Batignolles (1907)	"	1 fr. 93 c.

The crèche de l'Etoile, estimating its daily expense per child per day, gives the various items:—Milk, 12 c.; bread, '035 c.; meat, '032 c.; groceries, '039 c.; butter and vegetables, '029 c.

#### FOOD.

Food is supplied entirely free at the crèche. The largest item in the expenditure is milk, which varies considerably, and it is thus difficult to estimate amounts as so many crèches give milk to the mothers in addition to take home.

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\* It is interesting to note in this connection that the new English Day Nurseries charge a much higher rate to mothers, 4d. for one child and 7d. for two.



The following table shows a rough proportion of the articles of food used:—

1.—Attendances, 6,958.		2.—Attendances, 7,722.	
Milk	- - - 858 fr.	Milk	- - - 783 fr.
Bread	- - - 256 „	Bread	- - - 269 „
Butter	- - - 77 „	Butter	- - - 269 „
Eggs	- - - 26 „	Eggs, etc.	- - - —
Meat	- - - 238 „	Meat	- - - 248 „
Groceries	- - - 119 „	Groceries	- - - 304 „
Vegetables	- - - 204 „		
	<hr/> 1,778 fr.		<hr/> 1,873 fr.
3.—Attendances, 3,961.		4.—Attendances, 11,804.	
Milk	- - - 185 fr.	Milk	- - - 1,980 fr.
Milk given away	- - - 492 „	Other Food	- - - 3,881 „
Other Food	- - - 965 „		
	<hr/> 1,642 fr.		<hr/> 5,861 fr.
5.—Attendances, 8,466.		6.—Attendances, 10,442.	
Milk	- - - 1,566 fr.	Milk	- - - 1,613 fr.
Other Food	- - - 389 „	Other Food	- - - 3,216 „
	<hr/> 1,955 fr.		<hr/> 4,829 fr.

The last three crèches give milk to the mothers. The milk is sterilised. The amount of milk to be consumed per day for children under one year (artificially fed) is given in Appendix F. The crèche dietary for children from one year to two years varies in different crèches, but an ordinary dietary is:—

At 10.30 a.m., *panades*\* with eggs and milk.

„ 3 p.m. brioches and milk.

„ 5 p.m. milk soup.

Eggs in the soup have recently been added with good results.

The crèche dietary for children from two to three years of age is:—

At 11 a.m., soup, eggs, *purée*, fruit.

„ 2.30 p.m., bread, chocolate made with milk.

„ 5 p.m., eggs, slices of bread and jam, and milk.

Vermicelli, *crème de riz*, etc., are largely used, and in some crèches phosphatine is given freely.

#### CLOTHES.

The children attending the Paris crèches are supplied with clothes. These are changed when they arrive in the morning and again when they return home at night. The clothes in which they come are at once taken off and put away in a shelf labelled with the number of the child's cradle or crib. If necessary they are disinfected. The child, after washing, is

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\* *Panades*, the universal food for babies in France, consists of bread boiled in water for four or five hours, when hot milk is added and a little salt.

dressed in clothes belonging to the crèche. Some of the elder children, who come in clean clothes, are supplied with pinafores only. These are kept at the crèche and washed at the crèche. The clothes are supplied out of the funds, the material is bought by the managers, and often the small garments are made up at charitable working parties. In addition to the original stock, clothes for the children form a considerable item in each year's expenses.

Here is the proportion taken from 5 crèches:—With a yearly attendance of 8,617 clothing cost 926 fr.; with an attendance of 14,014 it cost 112 fr.; with an attendance of 8,494 it cost 100 fr.; with 7,125 it cost 641 fr.; and with 12,511 it cost 1,061 fr.

The following is a list of garments for starting a new crèche for 35 children of varying ages:—

	Fr.
105 Chemises (3 per child) in 4 sizes at 60 c. - - - -	63.00
70 Swaddling clothes, flannellette, at 1 fr. 25 c. - - - -	87.50
70 " " calico, at 85 c. - - - -	59.50
70 Ribs at 35 c. - - - -	24.50
70 Bodices at 45 c. - - - -	31.50
525 Napkins (15 per child) at 45 c. - - - -	236.25
35 Frocks for day use—striped cotton, at 1 fr. 15 c. - - - -	40.25
6 Doz. pinafores at 18 fr. a doz. - - - -	108.00
210 Handkerchiefs (6 per child) at 15 c. - - - -	31.50
	<hr/>
	682.00

The girls and boys in the crèche are usually distinguishable by the different colours of their pinafores, the girls being in pink and the boys in blue. Swaddling clothes are still used for delicate babies up to the age of three or four months.

#### MEDICAL INSPECTION.

The Paris crèches are visited every day by a doctor. These doctors give their services entirely free; there are usually seven or eight, sometimes more, attached to a crèche and these take it in turns to visit. Some crèches have a committee of doctors with a president and vice-president in order to arrange the hygiene of the crèche. Great stress is laid on these daily visits, the idea being that it is the mission of these doctors not to cure illness, but to prevent it by giving close attention to the temperament and physical condition of each child individually.

The crèche in Paris has become an arena for fighting infant mortality and a centre for teaching hygiene to mothers.

To some crèches is attached a "Consultation for Nurslings" or School for Mothers, to which infants are brought for weekly inspection and tables are kept of the weight and progress of each child. This is of course for children not in the crèche. Children in the crèche are most carefully weighed every week. (A table of growth for children under one year will be found in Appendix F.) Some startling results have been obtained by these Consultations for Nurslings in connection with crèches. At Varengeville-sur-Mer such an institution exists and the table of

infant mortality (which from 1897 to 1904 had averaged 145 deaths per 1,000), had no death to record of those infants who had received weekly inspection at the Consultation for Nurslings.

In Paris, where infant mortality from 1897 to 1904 had averaged 178 per 1,000, the average for babies attending the Consultation of Nurslings was reduced to 146 per 1,000.

At Fécamp, an infants' dispensary was originated under the name of "A drop of Milk" in connection with a crèche at which good milk was put at the disposal of mothers. This reduced infant mortality 2·8 per cent. M. Budin's experiments in various Paris crèches have had excellent results. In four crèches in various *Arrondissements* of Paris, by careful and systematic feeding and close supervision during the four hot summer months he lost not a single child out of 283.\*

The chief infantile complaints dealt with in the crèches are diarrhoea, meningitis, convulsions, bronchitis, pneumonia, and enteritis. All medicines are given free at the crèches.

A suggestive course of practical hygiene has been given to girls from 17 to 20 at a private crèche for the children of work-people by the founder Mme. Léon Lévy. Taking the girls in groups of eight, Mme. Lévy lectured in the wards of the crèche. The five lectures are given in Appendix G, not so much for their hygiene, which is not quite modern, but for the treatment and arrangement of the course. At the end the girls were allowed to practise washing the babies, preparing the food, sterilising milk, etc. They were subsequently examined by doctors of Paris crèches, who reported very favourably and strongly recommended the scheme to the Managers of other crèches.

The 45 crèches in Paris receiving municipal grants are subject to inspection. In addition to the ordinary Inspectors, a lady Inspector of Crèches has recently been appointed.

All the Paris crèches can be visited without authority by visitors. They are open from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. They are closed on Sundays and Festivals, otherwise there are no holidays. Practically they have to be closed at intervals for cleaning or painting or necessary repairs.

#### BUILDING AND EQUIPMENT.

Though each crèche differs in size and accommodation, yet all the more modern buildings contain in greater or less degree the same number and arrangement of premises. A great many of them are merely private houses adapted for the purpose and some, though recognised centres of hygiene, are sadly wanting in the most elementary principles of sanitation, as indeed are many of our own at home. The new buildings all contain a hall, leading directly to a waiting room where the mothers can feed their babies or wait.

Leading directly from the hall is also the large bedroom for very young babies known as the *Salle des Berceuses*. This is

\* "The Nursling," by P. Budin, translated into English by W. Maloney, M.B., 1907. It is interesting to note that in three summer months of the same year England and Wales together lost 23,058 infants under one year.

fitted with raised iron cradles arranged in rows with their heads to the wall and pointing towards the centre. The floors are bare, the walls can be washed, the windows are large. A ministerial order of 1897 fixed 9 metres per child as the minimum cube of air for the children's sleeping rooms. In the crèche Fénélon-Charles the *Salle des Lits* containing 36 beds measures 10m. 60c. by 7m. 15c.

The *Salle des Lits* is the bedroom for the larger children with small iron cribs placed in rows along the wall. Every child rests in the middle of the day. In some crèches there are a number of small wards for the elder children, who can be watched through glass doors, without fear of disturbing them.

A large playroom comes next in size and importance. It is often known as the *pouponnière* by reason of this article of furniture which is fitted into every crèche. A circle of wooden railings is fixed to the floor, usually in the centre of the playroom and within them runs another set. Between these two the children can walk and run without danger of falling. Inside are low benches, chairs and little tables, where the smaller children can sit and play with their toys. A large number of little children can be left in the *pouponnière* with safety. (See Appendix N.)

Every modern crèche has its kitchen fitted with a gas stove and oven. A lavatory is fitted with small raised baths and low basins. The water for these is usually warmed by means of a geyser. Many of the bath rooms are tiled as are also the adjoining *cabinets*. There is a linen room fitted with cupboards and shelves for both house linen and children's linen: a small office for the Directrice where the registers are kept; a small office for the doctors with weighing machine, writing desk, etc.: a sterilising room, where also the babies' bottles are kept. All these rooms are on the ground floor. Below usually is the laundry; above are the Directrice's rooms and an isolation room in cases of infection.

No flowers are allowed inside a crèche, but a garden outside is an acknowledged necessity for a modern crèche. The playgrounds are mostly gravelled and planted with chestnuts, with heaps of sand for the children to dig, also sun shelters.

The beds, bedding and linen required for a crèche of 35 children are as follows:—

		Francs.
1 Cradle	{ Special cradle, iron (painted blue) - - -	- 15.50
	{ Washing cover, unbleached calico, to button -	- 3.25
	{ Curtains - - - - -	- 5.25
	{ Palliasse—linen covered, stuffed seaweed -	- 3.00
	{ " " " oat chaff -	- 3.00
	{ Pillow of white washed horse hair -	- 3.00
	15 Complete cradles like above at 33fr. -	- 495.00
1 Crib	{ Special crib (blue) for a child of over 1 year -	- 6.50
	{ Mattress striped linen cover best quality -	- 4.50
	{ Palliasse -	- 4.00
	{ Bolster stuffed with oat chaff " " -	- 1 00
	20 Cribs complete like above at 16fr. -	- 320.00

	Francs.
35 White woollen blankets (for cradles and cribs) at 4fr. 75c. - - - - -	106.25
35 Quilts of white calico (for cradles and cribs) at 2fr. 95c. - - - - -	103.25
35 Waterproof sheets at 2fr. 10c. - - - - -	73.50
210 Sheets (3 pair each child) 1m.10 by 1m.25 at 1fr. 10c. - - - - -	231.00
525 Napkins (15 each child) at 45c. - - - - -	236.25
210 Pillow cases—unbleached calico, at 65c. - - - - -	136.50
70 Swaddling clothes of flannellette at 1fr. 25c. - - - - -	87.50
70 Swaddling clothes of calico at 85c. - - - - -	59.50
105 Chemises of calico (3 per child) in 4 sizes, at 60c. - - - - -	63.00
210 Handkerchiefs (6 per child) at 15c. - - - - -	31.50
70 Bibs of piqué at 35c. - - - - -	24.50
70 Bodices at 45c. - - - - -	31.50
35 Frocks for day use, at 1fr. 15c. - - - - -	40.25
6 Doz. pinafores at 18fr. a doz., - - - - -	108.00
6 Doz. table napkins at 3fr. a doz. - - - - -	18.00
Linen for the Staff—3 persons non-resident.	
24 Aprons of semi-bleached linen, 1m. 20 wide at 1fr. 75c. - - - - -	42.00
6 Doz. cloths at 8fr. 25c. a doz. - - - - -	49.50
3 Doz. towels at 10fr. 50c. a doz. - - - - -	31.50
3 Doz. table napkins at 11 fr. 75 c. a doz. - - - - -	35.25
<b>Total</b>	<b>2383.75</b>
	(£95 7 0)

The Crèche Fourcade (model) lately rebuilt and equipped cost 194,839 fr. exclusive of site which was presented by the original founders. In the year 1906 the current expenses (as shown in Appendix D) were 21,017 fr. 95 c. The average cost of erection of the five Paris crèches referred to in Appendix M was approximately £80 for each place, exclusive of the work of the site.

Among the chief Paris architects for crèches may be mentioned M. Paul Marbeau, whose crèche, St. Amelie de Charonne, took a silver medal at the Paris Exhibition in 1900, M. Girardin, M. Bechmann, M. Adelgeist, M. Reposeur and M. Charles Dupuy.

In Appendix M will be found plans and cost of building of various crèches in Paris. As the site in most cases has been presented by the founder, this item is for the most part not forthcoming.

#### HOW ENGLAND COMPARES WITH FRANCE IN THE MATTER OF CRÈCHES.

Although it is an acknowledged fact that the conditions in France are wholly different from those in England, the provision for children under the age of three years in this country is wholly inadequate to her growing needs.

A brief comparison will accentuate the neglect.

With a population of over 4½ million, London in 1904 had 55 crèches accommodating in all 1,693 children under three. With a population of 2½ million, Paris had 66 crèches accommodating 2,491 children under three. In other words London had crèche accommodation for one child in every 2,500, Paris had crèche accommodation for 1 child in every 1,000. Whereas the

average attendance in London for each crèche was 21, that in Paris was 28. The crèches in London are private with no aid from State or Municipality, while those of Paris have received both since 1862. London has no registration or system of inspection, while Paris has medical inspection daily and municipal inspection in her crèches. Lastly, the London crèches are distributed quite irregularly, some of the poorest boroughs having none at all, while Paris crèches are evenly distributed among 20 *arrondissements*. Even more startling are the differences outside the capitals. France, not including Paris or the Department of the Seine, has 322 crèches. England, not including London or Greater London, has 19.\*

The large towns of Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham, Sheffield, Bradford, and Bristol, with a population about equal to that of Paris, had 9 crèches between them all in 1904.

#### BRIEF NOTICE OF ENGLISH CRÈCHES.

English crèches or Day Nurseries, are for the most part organised by committees of ladies. They are mostly parochial and supported entirely by voluntary contributions. Few of them are in houses built for the purpose, but mostly in adapted premises. Any private person may open a crèche in England without leave from any public body; crèches are unregistered and under no inspection. Food is supplied to children in all the London crèches, with the exception of those 12 started by the late School Board in 1883, of which 4 only remained in 1904. With the exception of 4 crèches in London all refuse to take illegitimate children.

A movement towards a better condition of things has been recently made by the National Society of Day Nurseries founded in 1906. Its objects are: (1) to assist local committees who are opening and maintaining Day Nurseries on model lines; (2) to make financial grants to Nurseries conducted on lines approved by the Society; (3) to arrange for the inspection of Nurseries by the Medical Officer of Health for the district in which they are situated; (4) to endeavour to affiliate all existing Day Nurseries; (5) to collect information on the subject of Day Nurseries in this and other countries; (6) to publish reports of work done by existing Day Nurseries and to formulate suggestions for their improvement.

Day Nurseries organised or helped by this Society are to be regarded, not for relieving mothers from responsibility, but for providing centres for the teaching of infant care and rearing. Under their auspices a new crèche has been opened at Hammer-smith and one at Fulham, which compare most favourably with those in Paris. Indeed in several hygienic principles (such as swaddling versus free movement, ventilation, &c.), England is admittedly foremost.

In addition to these (and others are springing up rapidly),

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\* Statistics taken from the Report of the Chief Officer of the Public Control Department of the London County Council as to Crèches or Day Nurseries. (P. S. King & Son. 1904.)

there is a Jewish crèche working on excellent lines at White-chapel. Here children are admitted up to the age of five, the compulsory school age, and a Kindergarten teacher takes the elder children for games, &c. The attendances for the year 1906 were 7,668; the expenditure for the same year was £133.

## II. ECOLES MATERNELLES.

Whereas the crèche takes children from the age of 15 days to three years, the *Ecole Maternelle* takes them from the age of two to six, thus the two systems overlap by one year. Both are entirely optional, but while at the crèche there is the nominal charge of 20 centimes per day, the *Ecole Maternelle* is entirely free. Both are open from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m., though the regular hours of the *Ecole Maternelle* are from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.

As in the case of the crèche, the origin of the Mother-schools in France was both religious and charitable.

### FOUNDATION OF ECOLES MATERNELLES.

The *Salle d'Asile*, or infants' school, was started in the year 1771 by a French pastor Fred Oberlin at a small village in the Vosges. Here, in a little room, young children were collected together to pray, to sing, to learn a little reading and writing, and some manual work, such as coarse knitting; hence their original name "Knitting Schools."

The idea of educating young children was growing, not only in France. Raikes was establishing so-called Sunday Schools in England; Owen followed with mothers' schools in Scotland in connection with the woollen factories which took mothers from their homes. But before Froebel had established his first Kindergarten (1840) a committee of ladies, with a municipal grant of 3,000 francs, had opened the first infant school in Paris under the name of the *Salle d'Essai*. It was opened in the Rue du Bac with 80 children between the ages of two and six, under the management of the Sisters of Providence. In the year 1828 M. Cochin, Mayor of *Arrondissement XII*, founded a model school on the same lines with a Normal Course attached to it. Soon after this the *Salles d'Asiles* received State recognition and were placed under Government inspection.

In the year 1836 there were 24 such schools in Paris containing 3,600 children with a State grant of 75,000 francs, and 800 in the provinces containing 23,000 children. Twelve years later, in the words of M. Carnot,\* "Infant schools, improperly called charitable establishments, are henceforth establishments of Public Instruction and to be called *Ecoles Maternelles*."

A few years later, rules were laid down for the instruction of the children and no further changes of any importance were made till 1881, when all religious instruction was forbidden. The result of this was that a number of private *Ecoles Maternelles*

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\* "L'Education de la Première Enfance."—M. Gréard

sprang up under the direct management of religious bodies and supported by voluntary contributions, all State aid being withdrawn.\*

#### STAFF.

The *Ecoles Maternelles* are staffed entirely by women. At the head of every school is a Directrice. She is helped by a number of assistants depending on the number of children in the school. The proportion allowed is one assistant to every 40 children. Thus on July 1st, 1906, there were in Paris 170 *Ecoles Maternelles* (public) containing 45,910 children, 169 Directrices and 672 assistants to 767 classes. This gives an average of 270 children in each school, but the attendance is very variable.

The private schools are smaller and more amply staffed. On July 1st, 1906, there were 46 schools in Paris containing only 6,706 children, an average of 124 children in each school.

#### SALARIES.

The Directrice of an *Ecole Maternelle* must possess a *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*.† She enters on her duties at a scale of salary of the 4th class, that is 2,400 francs (paid by the State), minus 5 per cent. deducted for pension, plus *indemnité de résidence* 1,090 francs, plus *logement* 800 francs (paid by the Commune), giving a total of 4,200 francs. This is according to the new scale of salaries dating from April, 1905.

After a period of from three to five years of satisfactory conduct, on the recommendation of the *Inspecteur d'Académie* to the Préfet de la Seine, she is promoted to the 3rd class, in which she receives, under the same conditions as before, 2,400 francs salary, plus 1,300, plus 800, giving a total of 4,500 francs. In the 2nd class, to which promotion takes place under the same conditions as before, she receives 2,400 francs, plus 1,600, plus 800, or 4,800 francs; finally, in the 1st class, she receives 5,200 francs.

At the end of 25 years service as Directrice, or at the age of 55, she can retire on her pension, which amounts to half her salary minus the sums paid by the Commune.

The salaries of the assistant mistresses are paid in the same way and under the same conditions. They begin (in Paris) at 2,200 francs, *i.e.* 1,100, plus 500, plus 600, and rise to 3,200 francs, made up of 1,600, plus 1,000, plus 600.

The *Femmes de services*, chosen and dismissed by the Directrice, are paid by the Commune at the rate of about 1,000 francs per year rising to 1,200.

In addition to these there are the Concierges at the lodge.

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\* For a further account of the *Ecoles Maternelles* see "The *Ecoles Maternelles* of Paris," by Miss Mary S. Beard, in Vol. 8 of Special Reports on Educational Subjects published by the Board of Education, 1902.

† For particulars of this, see "Summary of the Official Regulations affecting the Training and Position of Teachers in State Primary Schools in France," by Miss H. E. Matheson, in Vol. 18 of Special Reports on Educational Subjects (1907).



They attend to the whole group of schools, but part payment comes into any annual financial statement.

The Budget for 1907 gives the total expenses of the staff for the *Ecoles Maternelles* in Paris at 3,145,198 francs, made up as follows:—

	Francs.
Directrices and assistants	2,265,176
Salaries and indemnities of residence	
Indemnities to teachers with more than five years service in } 1st class	18,300
Promotions, etc.	41,234
<i>Créations d'emplois</i>	11,325
<i>Indemnités de logement</i>	439,700
Wages of concierges, etc.	29,963
Wages of <i>femmes de service</i> , supply (sick)	270,500
Various indemnities, rewards to staff, etc.	2,500
Thursday classes	65,000
Various	1,500
	<hr/> 3,145,198

#### DUTIES OF THE STAFF.

The Directrice, who must be over the age of 25, is appointed by the Prefect under the authority of the Minister of Public Instruction on the nomination of the *Inspecteur d'Académie*.

It is somewhat difficult to define the duties of a position such as this. In the words of Mme. Pauline Kergomard, *Inspectrice Générale des Ecoles Maternelles*, "The *Ecole Maternelle* is a large family: the Directrice is the mother of a great number of children." A ministerial circular accompanying the re-organisation of the *Ecoles Maternelles* in 1905 sets forth the general trend of duties required in a Directrice.

"The object of the *Ecole Maternelle* is to give children under the school age such care as is required for their physical, intellectual and moral development, and to prepare them to profit by the primary instruction which follows. It is not a school in the ordinary sense of the word: it should be a passage from the family to the school: it should combine the charm and tenderness of family life with the work and regularity of school. A successful Directrice of the *Ecole Maternelle* cannot be judged by the amount of knowledge imparted, by the standard attained, by the number or length of lessons given, but rather by the good influences surrounding the child, by the amount of pleasure it takes in coming to school, by its orderly habits, cleanliness, politeness, attention, obedience and the general intelligent activity it displays while playing at games. Consequently the Directrice should occupy herself less in attempting to hand over to the primary school, children already far advanced in their education, than those well prepared to receive that education. Everything in the *Ecole Maternelle* should be arranged according to this general principle; the Directrice should strive to develop the various faculties of the child without weariness, without compulsion, without too much application; she should make the children love their school and love their work, never forcing them

to do those things which are incompatible with the weakness and activity of early childhood.

The object to be attained, after due consideration of their different temperaments—the precocity of some compared with the slowness of others—is not to force all alike up to a certain standard in reading, writing and reckoning, but rather to make them understand what they know and to create in them a love of their tasks and their games; above all, to see that they do not take a dislike to their first school tasks, which may so easily become distasteful to them, unless the Directrice, with patience enjoyment and love, enlivens them to give pleasure to the child.

Good health, hearing, sight, touch, already trained by a gradual succession of little games and little experiences fitted to train the senses; infant ideas, but clear in the first elements of what will later be elementary education; the beginnings of habits and customs upon which later on the school can build; a taste for gymnastics, singing, drawing pictures, little recitations; an eagerness to see, to observe, to imitate, to question and to answer; a certain faculty of attention, nurtured by skilful management, confidence and good nature; finally, intelligence awakened in the mind opened to good and moral impressions—such should be the results of the first years spent at the *Ecoles Maternelles*. And if the child arrives at the primary school with such preparation, it matters little whether it adds to this a few pages of its spelling book or not.”

Such morally is the attitude of the ideal Directrice.

Practically she has various duties to fulfil. She must keep various registers: (1) a register of the names of the children, date of birth and leaving, names, homes and professions of parents, with a column for observations; (2) a register for doctors' observations, (3) a register of attendances per month; (4) a register of stock, etc. These should always be at the disposal of the Primary Inspector and the Departmental Inspector or Inspectrice of the *Ecoles Maternelles*. On the arrival of the children in the morning, the Directrice has to ascertain that each is well. If a child is brought ill, she need not admit it. If it becomes ill in the course of the day, it is taken home by the *femme de service*.

The Directrice also makes it part of her duty to see that the child is clean. Great stress is laid on this in the *Ecole Maternelle*. In the hall of every school is a lavatory, with an open set of low basins with hot and cold water laid on. Here every morning and again at 1 o'clock the children, superintended by the *femmes de service*, wash their hands and faces. There is a growing feeling that it is not enough to have the hands and faces only clean, when the rest of the person is dirty. One school visited by me (Rue Lamarck) had a newly arranged bath room with four small baths, which were used on Saturday afternoons from 4 to 7, when some 30 children are bathed.\*

The Directrice inspects the baskets brought by the children

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\* For details of Bains-Douches, see Appendix J.

who stay for the day; she sees that each has a spoon and serviette and something suitable to drink.

She also sees that each child has brought a pocket handkerchief. Failing this most necessary possession, many schools have introduced paper pocket handkerchiefs invented by Dr. Calmette, Director of the Pasteur Institute at Lille.

The Directrice receives the pence of each child who stays to dinner and whose parents can afford to pay. She keeps the list of those who are fed free of charge. She supervises the school cantines. The hours of service arranged for the Directrice and her assistants is given in Appendix K.

No Directrice may absent herself without leave from the Primary Inspector and without notifying the same to the Inspectrice of *Ecoles Maternelles*. For an absence of three days, leave has to be obtained from the *Inspecteur d'Académie* and for eight days from the Prefect who is always President of the Departmental Council.

#### PUNISHMENTS.

These are arranged by the Directrice on a system prevailing in all the *Ecoles Maternelles*, but not entirely approved by the authorities. Children are given "good points" as rewards of good conduct. These take the form of squares of card, which are kept in little bags or pockets hung round the children's necks. They are won in various ways. For instance, on arrival in the morning, children show hands and pocket handkerchiefs; if these are satisfactory they receive a "good point." At the end of each month these pieces of card representing "good points" are exchanged for a picture or toy—25 "good points" receive a reward. At the end of each month for general good behaviour and morals the children receive a *croix de mérite*, which they wear in school.

No corporal punishment whatever is allowed. The only punishments permitted are a short suspension of games and renunciation of good points.

#### PRIZES.

Prizes are forbidden in the French schools, but they are nevertheless given to the children of the *Ecoles Maternelles*. The children are dressed up in their best clothes and wear garlands of artificial flowers on their heads, often made by themselves, and a *délégué cantonal* gives away pictures and small books to each child. This gratifies parents and teachers, but is not much approved by the authorities.

#### ASSISTANTS.

The assistant mistresses are entirely under the Directrice. They must be over the age of 17 and hold the *brevet de capacité* for primary education. Each has a separate class of children, and a great deal depends on the ingenuity and child-love of the individual teacher. The assistants help with the

midday meal if required, but those not wanted are obliged by the rules to go home to dinner. The school hours are very long and the assistants take it in turns to stay over time.

For division of hours see Appendix K.

#### FEMMES DE SERVICE.

The *femmes de service* are a most important addition to the staff of the *Ecoles Maternelles*. They are appointed by the Directrice with the consent of the Mayor and paid by the Commune. There is one at least in every school and two if the numbers justify it. Their duties are very various. They sweep out the school every day with sawdust and a liquid disinfectant. The *femme de service* opens the school at 8 a.m. in winter and 7 a.m. in summer for any children whose mothers go early to work. She looks after them till the Directrice and assistants arrive at 9 o'clock. She then personally superintends the children *aux cabinets* every morning and again at 1 o'clock.\*

The *femme de service* also washes the children's hands and faces, where they are too young to perform this office for themselves, and she helps to wait on them at their school dinner. She is, in fact, a most valuable institution for young children.

#### CONCIERGE.

The concierge and his wife belong to the whole group of primary schools—boys, girls and infants. They live at the school lodge and open the door into the street. In some cases the wife of the concierge cooks the dinners at the *Ecoles Maternelles*. The concierge has to light and extinguish stoves, attend to the gas and see to the windows.

#### DAMES PATRONNESSES.

As in the case of the crèche, a committee of ladies is appointed to superintend the general working of the school and specially to visit at the homes of the children. About 20-40 are annexed to each school. They are appointed by the *Inspecteur d'Académie* on the recommendation of the Mayor, who presides over the Committee meetings.

#### CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION.

The *Ecole Maternelle* is optional and free. Children of both sexes are admitted between the ages of 2 and 6. They must produce a note of admission from the Mayor of the Commune. Any child demanding admission must present a medical certificate stating whether it has had smallpox and certifying that it is suffering from no infectious complaint or any infirmity of a nature likely to injure the health of the other children. Parents

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\* This, from an hygienic point of view, is of the greatest importance and is greatly neglected in English infant schools. A highly trained teacher can hardly be expected to perform menial services for the small children though indeed they often do.

are requested to keep to the rules; they are expected to escort children under 4 to the crèche; after that age, and on written authority from the parents or guardians, children are allowed to come and go alone. Mothers are specially asked to bring the children clean, and to pack in their school basket a spoon, serviette, some bread and wholesome drink.\*

#### SUPPORT.

The parents pay nothing toward the support of these schools, the expenses of which are defrayed by the State, the Department and the Commune. The various grants and their conditions are somewhat complicated, but briefly stated:—The State gives a grant toward the construction, which construction for an *Ecole Maternelle* is calculated at 18,000 francs. This grant in the case of an *Ecole Maternelle* is optional, though it is compulsory in the case of a primary school. The State pays teachers' salaries and pensions, the salaries of Inspectors, Inspectrices and the administrative staff; it gives grants to the *Caisses des Ecoles* and towards the teachers' medals.

The Department pays general administrative expenses, pays for prizes and medals and gives grants to the *Caisses des Ecoles*.

The Commune (and every commune containing 2,000 inhabitants must have an *Ecole Maternelle* or a *Classe Infantine*) pays the board and lodging of teachers, the repair of school buildings, warming and lighting, wages of the *femmes de service*, furniture and stock, stationery and registers, and gives a grant to the *Caisses des Ecoles*.

#### CAISSES DES ECOLES.

This society practically represents the private enterprise that operates in connection with the primary schools in France.

Originally an informal association originating in Paris (*Arrondissement II.*) in 1849 to aid in obtaining extra school funds, the institution grew in importance till in the year 1882 there were 62 *Caisses des Ecoles* in Paris and the Department of the Seine with a capital of 820,000 francs.

So great was its sphere of usefulness that in 1882 an establishment of the *Caisses des Ecoles* was made compulsory in every commune or collection of small communes by the Municipal councils of France with a grant varying with their respective needs. In 1902, France had 17,439 such societies with a general expenditure of 6,700,385 francs. At the close of 1905, the society had spent 2,490,856 francs on the primary schools in Paris alone.

The society is composed of ordinary members paying from 10 to 15 francs a year, founders paying about 100 to 200 francs in advance, and donors subscribing various sums.

The administration is directed by a committee elected every three years. It includes always the Mayor as president, deputy Mayors, members of the *Commission municipale scolaire*,

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\* The children mostly bring wine—often spirits—rarely milk.

three members of the delegates of the canton, the Justice of the Peace for the *arrondissement*, and thirty elected members from the list of general subscribers. The committee itself elects a vice-president, secretary, under-secretary, and treasurer. Added to these are the *Dames Patronnesses* of the schools, who have the power of voting, and a body of *Dames Déléguées* to distribute the help voted by the Committee. Meetings take place once every two months with an annual meeting of subscribers to consider the yearly report of the work, which is then forwarded to the *Inspecteur d'Académie*.

The object of the Society is to encourage the attendance at school, whether compulsory or optional (as in the case of the *Ecole Maternelle*), to destroy every motive or pretext for absent children by providing clothing and boots for necessitous children, to give wholesome food to children attending the public elementary schools. The Society originated the *Cantines Scolaires*, still financed by them with special grants for this purpose. In 1906 the Municipality of Paris gave 1,000,000 francs to be divided among the *Caisses des Ecoles* for the *Cantines Scolaires* of Paris. These include the *Ecoles Maternelles*.

The Society dispenses medicines in the schools. (See p. 104.) It also rewards in various ways the families of the children at school, so as to stimulate parental responsibility, to encourage good conduct and assist deserving teachers.

The *Colonies de Vacances* are under this organisation. Several of the local societies have started *Colonies Infantines* to enable children from the *Ecoles Maternelles* to go into the country. Towards the expenses of these *Colonies de Vacances* in *Arrondissement V.*, the Municipal Council of Paris gave a grant of 10,300fr., 100fr. of which was spent on *Colonies Infantines*.

In addition to the work done by the *Caisses des Ecoles* with regard to children's holidays, there is a Society, the "*Œuvre Parisienne des Colonies Maternelles scolaires*," founded by teachers of the *Ecoles Maternelles* in Paris, for sending children under six for a month into the country. In 1901, 90 children were sent at a cost of 7,772 fr., toward which expenses the General Council of the Department of the Seine gave 1,000fr., the Municipal Council 300 fr., the Minister of the Interior 300fr., and the *Caisses des Ecoles* 950fr.

#### HOLIDAYS.

With regard to the holidays at the *Ecole Maternelle*, the schools are open every day except Sunday and in some cases Thursday. The schools are also closed on the following days:—

The day after All Saints' Day.

December 31st, January 1st and 2nd.

Shrove Tuesday.

Thursday in mid-Lent.

Days of Commune *fêtes*.

The day following the *Fête Nationale* (July 14th).

Ten days at Easter, from the Thursday before Easter Day to the Sunday following.

These days are in addition to the school holidays for the staff.

Although none of the staff are required to attend on Thursdays, a band of auxiliary teachers in Paris has been formed to superintend on that day those children whose parents are out and who would otherwise be exposed to the dangers of the streets.

#### CLASSES DE JEUDI.

Originally this subject was taken up by the *Caisses des Ecoles* experimentally in five *arrondissements* of Paris, and classes were formed on Thursdays in the *Ecoles Maternelles* and Girls' Schools. These classes were only accessible to those children whose parents were ill or working away from home all day. Each class was composed of 40 to 50 children. The ordinary time table was not kept, but the children were taught games, sometimes taken for walks, and generally occupied or amused. In 1896 the subject was taken up by the Municipal Council of Paris, which had already given a grant of 40,000 francs to the *Caisse des Ecoles* for purposes of organisation. A band of auxiliary teachers was recruited, consisting of 225 women and 75 men, to undertake the supplementary work, together with any regular assistants who liked to officiate. These classes are not formed in every school, but there will be one or two to a group of several. It is open, if necessary, from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m., but usually only in the afternoons. The auxiliary teachers get a fixed salary of 900 francs a year and an additional 2fr. 50c. for each day on supply.

In 1904 the sum of 884,850 francs was spent on the expenses of the auxiliary force, which also manages the *Classes de Vacances*.

#### CLASSES DE VACANCES.

Until 1905 the *Ecoles Maternelles* were only closed for one month in the summer. Now the whole staff has a right to six weeks during August and September. If the school is situated in a good neighbourhood it is entirely closed; if, however, it is in a poor part and the parents are away all day, a holiday school is opened. This is done at the request of the Municipal Council and on the recommendation of the *Inspecteur d'Académie*. The position is well summed up thus: "Holidays are indispensable to teachers, but they are full of grave inconveniences to the children of the working classes, who are exposed to the dangers of the street during a long period. The *Ville de Paris* has solved the difficulty by holiday courses. During four or six weeks the doors of the school are open to these children. Arrangements have been made to give these poor disinherited little ones some of the amusements which fall to the lot of their more favoured comrades. The morning is taken up with attractive games, the afternoon is reserved for walks and rambles. Those teachers who do this supplementary work receive 7fr. 50cts. a day in addition to their salary. During the vacation the *cantines scolaires* continue."

## FOOD.

Food is provided at the *Ecole Maternelle* for those children whose parents cannot or will not provide dinners at home. About one third of the children at the *Ecole Maternelles* stay, and the rest go home. In October, 1906, out of 34,912 children attending the *Ecoles Maternelles* in Paris, 10,346 were being fed—29·6%. The expenses for these schools are not given separately, but the Municipal Council in 1906 gave a sum of 1,000,000 frs. to the *Caisses des Ecoles* for the *cantines scolaires* in Paris.

Some children bring 10 centimes for their dinner—some 20 centimes. The sum is variable according to the school and neighbourhood. About a third of the children pay and two-thirds have dinners free. In 1905, the number of portions distributed was:—

Free	-	-	-	6,144,634.
Paying	-	-	-	3,184,669.

The list of those who are fed free is kept by the Mayor. No child, except under unusual circumstances, has a free dinner unless both parents are earning less than 4 fr. a day.

Great emphasis is laid on the importance of feeding the children attending the *Ecoles Maternelles* separately. The food at the central cantines is not suited to their age and digestion. Hence there is a kitchen attached to most of the schools, where the food is carefully prepared.

The children sit on low benches with backs and the food is spread on low tables. The soup is served in little metal pots and each child has its own spoon, napkin, bread and drink. The children are served by *femmes de service* with the Directrice or an assistant to superintend. Not only is stress laid on the physical benefit of good food but on the educational value of manners and refinement with regard to eating.\*

Various menus are given in Appendix L, some of which, at 10 centimes a meal, pay their own expenses. But some of the authorities do not approve of so much meat for young children. It has been ascertained that a child under the age of five does not require meat. Mme. Kergomard's sketch of suitable food for children of the *Ecole Maternelle* is suggestive.

"In the menu we should propose for the *Ecoles Maternelles*, and above all for the little ones, milk forms a considerable proportion. Rice and milk, potato flour and milk, *purée* of potatoes and milk, semolina and milk, tapioca and milk, maize flour, oat flour, buck wheat and milk—all these foods are excellent for children who have but recently finished teething, and who are subjected to much too advanced feeding through the ignorance of their parents. Later, we would give eggs cooked in a digestible way for these little people to eat. Dried vegetables, very wholesome if well cooked, should always be reduced to a *purée*; macaroni might take its place once a week

\* Mme. Girard, *Inspectrice des Ecoles Maternelles de la Seine*, quotes small children drawing the corks of their wine bottles with their teeth.



if the children like it. As for meat, we should only use it to add its special nutritive elements to those of the vegetables, as long as it is neither grilled nor roasted. We would make excellent soup of beef, but only the biggest children should eat boiled beef itself. Lard is useful in preparing lentils, potatoes and haricots, making them more nourishing and tasty, but few children like lard. Soups we should always give with conviction. But we are not contented with soup only at mid-day, we want to see it given in the morning and again at four o'clock, especially in winter. What a boon this would prove to all the little stomachs!"

Many of the large towns in France are spending large sums on feeding the young children in the *Ecoles Maternelles*. Rennes, in 1903, spent 11,000fr. on feeding the children in their schools, where the average attendance was 3,369.

Marseilles has made all the feeding free at the *Ecoles Maternelles*. St. Etienne charges 15 centimes and adds wine—1 litre to fifteen children.

#### CLOTHING.

Clothes are supplied to the children of the *Ecoles Maternelles* by the *Caisses des Ecoles* in cases of need, and after due investigation. Every Monday morning the Directrice and her assistants inspect the children's clothes, boots, stockings, frocks and underlinen. The parents are earnestly requested to supply warm and suitable clothes, but failing this, necessary garments are supplied by the Society. The number of clothes and their prices are usually put under the same head as those supplied to the primary schools for boys and girls. But in one *arrondissement* of Paris containing seven *Ecoles Maternelles* and 1,499 children, the Society gave away in the year 1906, 432 pairs shoes at 3fr. each, 170 frocks at 4fr. 50c. each, 196 *pantalons* at 3fr. each, and 237 pinafores at 1fr. 65c. each, costing in all 3,040fr. 05c. The accounts for this year amount to nearly 1,000fr. in excess of this. At Christmas quantities of warm clothes are given away to the children either from this same source or by private charity. To put the child in sympathy with the environments of the school is one of the main objects of the *Ecole Maternelle* and this is held to be impossible if the child is ragged, dirty or uncomfortable. An experiment tried at a school where baths have been established is suggestive. It was found to be impossible, after bathing the children, to re-dress them in their dirty, often ragged chemises, or shirts. Application was made to the Inspectress of needlework and she had the necessary articles supplied from the girls' schools, thus giving the children a change of linen, often lacking in very poor homes.

With regard to paper pocket handkerchiefs supplied to children in some schools, these cost one sou a dozen. The system is as yet in its infancy.

#### SCHOOL PROGRAMME.

The methods of teaching and the occupations of the *Ecoles Maternelles* are in a somewhat transitional state in France as

they are in the English Infant schools. It will therefore seem most fair to give the Instructions adopted by the Departmental Council of Primary Education in 1895, the Ministerial circular issued by the Minister of Public Instruction to the Prefects and *Inspecteurs d'Académie* in 1905, and a scheme of lessons taken from a Directrice's note book for June, 1907, showing the work on a practical basis.

The Instructions for 1895 suggest that the teaching should include:—

*Games* and graduated movements accompanied by songs. These should take place either in the hall or outside in the courtyard. Teaching of singing will include songs in unison and songs in two parts; the mistress will always start them with a tuning fork.

*Manual work.*—This will consist of plaiting, weaving, folding, pricking, unravelling little bits of coarse knitting, threading beads, making little buildings of cards, straw, cubes, sand, etc. Sewing and other work of a tiring nature to young children is forbidden.

*The first principles of moral education* should be given, not so much by means of connected lessons, as by the help of familiar conversation and the recitation of poetry calculated to inspire children with a sense of devotion toward their homes, their country, and their God. These principles should be independent of all religious instruction.

*Knowledge of everyday things.*—This should be taught by means of conversation, giving elementary ideas about clothing, food, man, animals, plants, stones; form and colour; division of time, seasons, cardinal points; France and the principal countries of the world. The teaching should be given with the help of real objects and pictures.

*Lessons on Language* by means of recitations and stories with the idea of accustoming children to express in simple and correct language what they have seen and heard, of enlarging their vocabulary in proportion to their development, intelligence and needs.

*Drawing.*—The first elements will include combinations of lines by means of little sticks, the reproduction of these on slates and blackboard, with easy designs and the reproduction of familiar objects and simple ornament on slates and paper.

*Reading* not to be attempted by children under five. The teacher should dwell, not on difficult combinations of letters, but on common words and simple sentences. As soon as possible children should have movable letters by which to learn.

Mme. Kergomard advocates children beginning with their own Christian names and learning letters in this way.

*Writing.*—No instructions, except that no child under five should begin.

*Arithmetic* should include the formation of numbers from 1 to 10 and 10 to 100 by the help of objects put into the children's hands, such as sticks, marbles, coins, etc. The first four rules of arithmetic up to 100 by means of tangible objects and the

representation of numbers by figures with simple application of the metric system (metre, litre, etc.). Children should be well practised in mental arithmetic.

Note.—All stories and conversation, taken as much as possible from pictures, should be restricted to scenes of infant life and should inculcate love of country. Intellectual and manual lessons should be taken alternately, each should last 20 minutes. They should always be divided by songs, free movements, marching or gymnastics.

The *Method* of carrying out these Instructions is given in every copy of the Rules supplied to Directrices of *Ecoles Maternelles*. "This process of education should be conducted in the spirit of an intelligent and devoted mother. As it is not proposed, in the *Ecoles Maternelles*, to form or exercise any one set of faculties to the detriment of others, but to develop all harmoniously together, there is no need to follow punctiliously any of the special methods which must exist in a system at once exclusive and artificial. On the contrary, it will be the best plan to take the simplest suggestions out of each part, and so to form by the help of these various elements a course of instruction and education which will respond to the needs of a little child and bring all its faculties into play. The work should be as varied as possible, the object lessons—conversation, singing, first attempts at drawing, reading, reckoning and recitation—should all be separated by physical exercises, games of all sorts and gymnastic movements. The method should be essentially natural and familiar, always alive to modern progress, capable of improvement and reform."

The following shows a more detailed programme for Sections 1 and 2. The first includes the *Classes Enfantsines* when annexed to the *Ecole Maternelle*, admitting the child up to the age of seven.

#### SPECIAL PROGRAMME.

##### SECTION 2.

##### CHILDREN FROM 2-5.

##### *First Principles of Moral Education.*

Special attention given to development of good habits in children, to gaining their affection and promoting harmony.

First notions of right and wrong.

##### *Lessons in Language.*

Lessons in pronunciation. Exercises to enlarge the vocabulary of the children, songs, fables, etc., learnt by heart, questions.

##### SECTION 1.

##### CHILDREN FROM 5-7.

Simple talks throughout the day on work and play. Little pieces of poetry explained and learnt by heart, Little moral stories related, followed by questions to see if children have understood. Little songs. Special attention to any growing fault in individual child.

Lessons combining language, reading and writing preparatory to spelling. Familiar questions, teaching children to answer plainly, correcting faults of pronunciation and local accent. Learning by heart, recitation of short pieces of poetry. Written exercises—first dictation of one word, then two or three, then short sentences. Little stories told by teacher and afterwards related by the children.

*Object Lessons. Knowledge of Common Things. First Notions of Natural History.*

Names of the chief parts of human body, chief animals of the country, plants used for food or known by children (trees in court, in street; familiar flowers). Name and size of objects under the eyes of children (food, clothes, home, etc.). Study of colours and forms by means of games. Notions of day and night. Observations about time, hour, day, week. Age of child. Attention drawn to the differences of heat, cold, rain and fine weather. Observations on seasons, etc. First education of the senses by little exercises, to recognise and compare colours, tints, forms, lengths, weights, smells, temperatures, sounds.

Elementary lessons on the human body, little lessons on hygiene, comparative study of animals known to child, plants, stones, metals, air, water, snow, ice, rain, etc. Little lessons of objects under the eyes of children and in their hands. Familiar talks to teach children everyday knowledge—right and wrong, names of days and months, differences between animals, vegetables and minerals, seasons, above all to induce them to look about, observe, compare, question and remember.

*Drawing. Writing. Reading*

Games of cubes, balls, sticks and coloured bricks. Explanation of very simple pictures.

Little combinations of lines by means of sticks.

Representation of these on slate.

No writing or reading.

Combination of lines, representation of these combinations on slate or paper with pencil or coloured chalk, little original drawings on paper ruled in squares, reproduction of very simple designs drawn by teacher. Representation of common objects. First lessons in reading and writing letters, syllables and words.

*Arithmetic.*

Familiarise children with numbers 1 to 10. Mental calculation with these numbers.

First elements of oral and written numeration. Little exercises of mental arithmetic; addition and subtraction up to 100. Explain whole, half, quarter, etc. First four rules with these numbers. Metre, etc.

*Geography.*

Home and address of parents, name of commune, ideas of distance, relative parts of the school. Earth and water. Sun, rising and setting.

Familiar talks and little preparatory exercises to rouse spirit of observation in little children. Point out natural phenomena, etc.

*Manual Work.*

Games. Little exercises in folding, weaving, plaiting, etc.

Combinations of colour in wools, canvas or paper; elementary knitting.

*Singing.*

Simple singing in unison.

Singing in two parts learnt by ear.

*Gymnastics.*

Marching, circles, games with hoops, balls, rhythmic movements, action games with song.

Continuation of games for Section 2. Formation of ranks, marching, assembling, etc.

## MINISTERIAL CIRCULAR, 1905.

Two years ago the Minister of Public Instruction addressed an important ministerial circular to the Prefects and Inspectors of the Académies of France relating to the *Ecoles Maternelles*. It was inspired entirely by the reports of the Women Inspectors, who drew attention to the serious mistakes that were being made with regard to infant education. They urged strongly that the *Ecoles Maternelles* should be neither nurseries nor elementary schools, but merely centres where young children could be prepared for school. The circular draws attention to the various causes which have contributed to this evil. A few of the most important are these.

(1) The programme is too ambitious and loses sight of the physiological and intellectual development of childhood. It presupposes an amount of culture and knowledge that few teachers possess. Therefore each teacher is invited to prepare a daily time-table better adapted to the age, character and development of the children as well as to their local environment. There must be no sedentary work. No two intellectual lessons must be consecutive; both manual and intellectual work must be separated by 15 minutes of free movement.

(2) Regarding the sections. In most schools there are three sections (children from two to three, from three to five, and from five to seven years of age), and only two assistants, hence the youngest children are left with the *femme de service*, who may or may not have notions of hygiene and cleanliness. The other two sections, instead of working in parallel sections including children of the same age, are for the most part mixed, this arrangement being more convenient for teachers. The rule of sections should be rigidly kept.

(3) The inspection of *Ecoles Maternelles* is almost exclusively performed by men. These are too apt to judge the school by its progress in reading, writing and arithmetic, attaching quite a secondary importance to cleanliness, manners at table and general behaviour at games, &c. They forget that the best school is that where clean habits are usual and where happiness and health, animation and life go with order, work and regularity.

(4) Parents and teachers are responsible for the mistakes committed by the *Ecole Maternelle*. The first, through ignorance, think they are right in insisting that their children shall learn to read and write before they can speak properly or understand what is said to them. The head masters and mistresses of Primary schools, not recognising the danger of premature intellectual effort and little desirous themselves to teach the three Rs, depreciate the efforts of the Directrices of the *Ecoles Maternelles* in those cases where the children sent up cannot read or write. It is important to remind Primary Inspectors to keep to the spirit rather than to the letter of the law as regards the *Ecole Maternelle*.

In compliance with these new regulations the Directrices now make their own time-tables. Here are the notes of two days' work in both sections by Mme. Leroy for June, 1907.

CHILDREN FROM TWO TO FIVE.

*Saturday, June 1.*

*Little Talk.*—The pocket handkerchief. What is it? What is its use? "*Moucher; cracher.*" Each must have one. How to use it. Unfold, "*se moucher,*" refold.

*Manual Work.*—Fold square of thin paper into two, then into four, then eight for a diagonal.

*Game of Skill.*—To walk about the class room balancing a ball on head.

*Recitation*—Poor nest. (Mlle. Brès.)

*Un oiseau dans la haie*

*En vain cherche son nid,*

*Et se plaint et gémit*

*D'une voix desolée :*

*"Quels voleurs, quels méchants*

*M'ont pris mes chers enfants?"*

*La brebis de la plaine*

*Répond : "Ce n'est pas moi.*

*Moi qui laissais pour toi*

*Les flocons de ma laine*

*Aux feuilles, aux rameaux*

*De tous les arbrisseaux."*

*Instructive Game.*—Make a hole in some rounds of paper, run a string through the holes and make them fly.

*Drawing.*—Flat solids, three bricks and four half bricks. Combinations first shown, then done by children free. The best put on black board.

*New Song.*—"Pif-Paf." 66 action songs for schools, by Mlles. Brès et Collin.

*"Pif-Paf est un pantin, en bois peint*

*Très drôle et très malin,*

*Il lave sa frimousse, sitôt en se levant, se levant*

*Et ne craint pas la mousse du savon écumant*

*Il débrouille et puis lisse ses cheveux avec soin, avec soin*

*Alors quoiqu'il pâtisse, Pif-Paf ne pleure point.*

*Tous les matins, il brosse ses habits, oui vraiment, oui vraiment*

*La tache la plus grosse s'efface lestement.*

*Il mange son écuelle, sans jamais verser rien*

*Pif-Paf est un modèle, tant il se conduit bien*

*Il est moins grand en somme moins grand qu'un vrai marmot*

*Mais il salue en homme en levant son chapeau.*

*Dès que la lampe brille le soir et qu'il fait nuit*

*Pif-Paf se déshabille et se couche sans bruit.*

*Il dort quand même ou cause dans la chambre alentour*

*Il dort paupière close et s'éveille au grand jour."*

*Monday, June 3.*

*Little Talk.*—The house, the kitchen. Let child describe it. What can we see? Kitchen fire, table, etc. The use of each object. What does mother do? Each child? Cat? Children should help their parents without complaining.

*Manual Work.*—Winding wool for a flower in the shape of balls.

*Game of Skill.*—A race with boxes on head, several at a time.

*Object Lesson.*—What is your bed made of? Take the mattress as subject of lesson. Is it horsehair or combings of wool? Demonstrate. Make a little doll's mattress.

*Instructive Game.*—To unravel some wool and make a little mattress with paper.

*Drawing.*—Solids for height. A tower, most solid at base. Other free combinations.

*New Song.*—Pif-Paf. Last four lines.

CHILDREN FROM FIVE TO SEVEN.

*Saturday, June 1.*

*Little Talk.*—The house as in Section 2.

*Reading Lesson.*—Deal with endings in ar, or, ur, er, our, oir, eur, œur. *Le pêcheur a vendu le poisson. La vapeur fait marcher le bateau et le chemin de fer. J'aime papa et maman de tout mon cœur. Mon père a fait le tour du monde. Ma soeur a été sage : ma tante lui donnera une poupée.*

*Instructive Game.*—The children practice rising from their benches, two couples at a time, without making any noise : they get up on to the bench and sit on the desk. Which is the quickest ?

*Manual Work.*—A periwinkle, mauve paper.

*New Song.*—Hear each separately.

*Writing.*—Very steadily—the number 20.

*Recitation.*—"The little chicken," already begun.

*Object Lesson.*—The fruits of the season, cherries, strawberries. How do we eat them : raw or cooked or made into jam ?

*Game of Skill.*—Two and two play at ball.

*Drawing.*—A bunch of cherries and strawberries in coloured chalks, red and green.

#### Monday, June 3.

*Little Talk.*—Papa. What he does for his family, his departure every morning. The work he does every day. His fatigue, his privations. How children can be pleasant to him, obey him and love him. Papa is always happy when he has good children.

*Reading lesson.*—Revision of lesson on ar, or, ir, etc.

*Instructive Game.*—To cut the corn, hay, cabbages, and shake down the nuts.

*Manual Work.*—Little hats in straw.

*New Song.*—"The fly" : beginning

"*Ecoutez ce léger bruit zizizizizi.*"

*Writing.*—Number 21.

*Recitation.*—"The little chicken."

*Arithmetic.*—From numbers 80-90. Addition having the number 7 as result. Thus, 1 plus 6, 2 plus 5, 3 plus 4, 4 plus 3, etc.

*Game of Skill.*—Throw ball through a circle.

*Drawing.*—Anything seen in the morning.

#### THE IDEAL.

Lastly, to sum up from the words of *Mmes. les Inspectrices des Ecoles Maternelles*. The child in a very poor family is a little disinherited being to whom the *Ecole Maternelle* owes life under happier conditions, conditions under which rosy cheeks, sparkling eyes, and merry laughter are possible. The child is cold and hungry, it is poorly clad and dirty, it is unhappy and unloved. The *Ecole Maternelle* owes it food and warmth, cleanliness and tidy clothes, joy and tenderness. Children should always live in an atmosphere of joy—a child ought to laugh as a bird ought to sing. If the child develops naturally it is happy, for it carries within it a source of joy spontaneously evolved. It should be the object of the *Ecole Maternelle* to render infant life happy and joyful, and free.

This object cannot be achieved without health. The French have translated Herbert Spencer's words : "*La première condition du succès dans le monde, c'est d'être un bon animal, et la première condition de la prospérité nationale, c'est que la nation soit formée de bons animaux.*"

#### MEDICAL INSPECTION.

The question of medical inspection of *Ecoles Maternelles* is still under discussion in France. No medical inspector can enter a school without leave from the Prefect. In 1883 about 126 medical inspectors were appointed to inspect the children of the national schools twice a month, at a salary of 800 francs

each a year, paid by the municipal councils. Their instructions were to report on the general condition of the children, and to see that the rules of hygiene were observed.

The following clause occurs in a Ministerial Circular of 1905, addressed by the Minister of Public Instruction to the Prefects and *Inspecteurs d'Académie*, relating to the *Ecole Maternelles* :—

"It is an imperative duty for the Administration to nominate a medical inspector and to see that he rigorously fulfils the duties devolving on him. An *Ecole Maternelle* badly administered may become a source of danger with regard to infection and infantile maladies. He must see to the school lavatories, etc., satisfy himself that the desks are suitable to the size of the children, arrange the cantine menus to the age of the children, procure the necessary disinfectants for cleaning the school. At times when anxiety with regard to public health and questions of general hygiene are taking a foremost place in the public mind, I attach the very first importance to the suggestions contained in this circular."

Every *Ecole Maternelle* has its own medicine chest (supplied at the cost of 53 francs), containing, among other things, bandages, arnica, plaster, cotton-wool, etc.

The *Caisse des Ecoles*, acting on the advice of medical inspectors, dispenses to the delicate children cod liver oil, iron, phosphatine. In 1906-7 one *arrondissement* spent 1,800 fr. in medicines given to 1,000 children. With regard to medical inspection of Paris schools, it must be remembered that there is a free dispensary for children in every *arrondissement*, toward the support of which the municipality gives grants varying from 450 fr. to 6,500 fr. Here children from the schools can have baths, hair cut and washed, medical advice with regard to teeth, eyes, ears, etc., while a free distribution of cod liver oil is made to necessitous children in the winter.

#### GOVERNMENT INSPECTION.

This is authoritative by Inspectors (general), Rectors and *Inspecteurs d'Académie*, Inspectors of Primary Education, Members of the Departmental Council appointed for purposes of inspection (stock, hygiene and premises, not education), and the Mayor and Delegates from the cantons. Concurrently with these authorities for the *Ecoles Maternelles* are the *Inspectrices Générales* and the *Inspectrices Départementales*, nominated by the Minister of Public Instruction. They are under the *Inspecteurs d'Académie*, they inspect the *Ecoles Maternelles* both public and private, they direct special inquiries, give advice on the promotion of teachers, etc. There are at present four *Inspectrices Générales*, five attached to special inspections in the Département de la Seine, and one *Inspectrice primaire* (Montpellier). These receive salaries at the same rate as Inspectors.

#### PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

These are also under Government inspection. Owing to the suppression of religious orders in France, numbers of private



schools are closing, and statistics are not forthcoming up to date. In the year 1896 there were 3,350 private *Ecoles Maternelles* in France, containing 283,095 children. Private schools receive no grants from State, Department or Commune. No private school may receive children if there already exists a public school or infant class, without leave from the Departmental Council. The same rules apply with regard to age and sex as in public schools. No one may teach in a private school under the age of 17. Registers must be kept which shall be seen by the *Inspecteur d'Académie*. Every person wishing to open a private school must notify the same to the Mayor of the Commune enclosing a plan of the premises. Anyone opening a private school without leave is liable to severe penalty. Religious instruction is optional. Most of the *Ecoles Maternelles* in Paris are conducted by the Sisters of St. Vincent de Paul.

The *Caisses des Ecoles* contribute nothing to the private schools, but there are numerous private subscriptions to provide the children with food and clothing.

#### BUILDING AND EQUIPMENT.

The *Ecole Maternelle* forms part of a group of buildings, including boys' and girls' elementary schools, though it is entirely separate from them. The name is usually engraved on the street door, and a flag invariably flies over the building. This includes an entrance hall where the parents can wait, leading into the large hall. This should be 4 m. high and allow 0 m. 80 (surface) for each child; the floors are boarded, the walls distempered a plain colour. It is warmed by a stove of metal or terra cotta surrounded by an iron railing. At one end of the hall is the children's lavatory. This consists of a number of low basins in two rows or a circle, in the proportion of one basin to every ten children. Soap and towels are provided. The hall is also fitted with cupboards containing clothing for the children; there are shelves for their baskets, and pegs for their clothes; also low tables and benches.

There are several class-rooms fitted with desks. In one of the schools visited by me three class-rooms were fitted with 72, 56 and 48 desks respectively. Each class-room is also fitted with a cupboard where all the materials are kept. There is also a mistress' desk and a blackboard.

Nearly every school has its little kitchen to cook the children's dinners; it is fitted with a gas stove. There is also a small office fitted with desk and drawers for the Directrice. Here is usually a great display of articles made by the children.

Outside is a courtyard planted with young chestnut trees. It is mostly gravelled, and plentifully supplied with low benches for the children. The size is calculated at three metres per child; never less than 150 metres altogether. In one corner of the courtyard, screened off by trees and connected with the main building by a covered way, are the *cabinets*. These are divided into compartments, one to every 15 children.

The cost of building these is included in the estimate for the whole groups of buildings, but the current expenses are given in the budget of the Ville de Paris. In the year 1904 these were—

Staff - - -	2,697,708 fr.
Material - - -	209,736 fr.
Divers expenses- -	341,851 fr.

Total expenses *Ecoles Maternelles* 3,249,295 fr.

In the same year the number of public *Ecoles Maternelles* in Paris was 166, containing 47,814 children.

#### COMPARISON OF ECOLES MATERNELLES AND ENGLISH INFANT SCHOOLS.

The age of admission for the *Ecole Maternelle* is 2 to 6, whereas in the Infants' School it is 3 to 5, optional and free. The *classes enfantines* receive children up to 7 as do the Infants' Schools in England. In many country schools children are not admitted at all till the age of five.

In the *Ecoles Maternelles* the children are fed and to some extent clothed. In the Infants' School, the child is neither fed nor clothed, except where relief committees are at work, and thus the proportion is very small. In the *Ecole Maternelle* the child can stay all day from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. In the Infants' School the child must not arrive till 9 a.m., it must leave the school between 12 and 2 and it goes home at 4 p.m. (With a mother at work, all day, this is hopeless from an hygienic point of view.) In the *Ecole Maternelle* medicines are dispensed free. In the Infants' School there is no arrangement for this. In the *Ecole Maternelle* an untrained but respectable servant is always on the spot to look after the children at lavatories, &c. In the Infants' Schools children from 3 to 5 are left to themselves or put under the charge of an older child. In the *Ecole Maternelle* provision is made for the children on their weekly holiday, Thursday, and if necessary during the summer holidays. In the Infants' Schools there is neither provision, though a few holiday schools now exist in London.

The *Ecole Maternelle* is less of a school than the Infants' Departments, there is less discipline, less sitting in desks, the children walk naturally rather than march, they stand in groups rather than in lines, and sing as they enter and leave the classroom. Their games are more varied, there is more playing of ball in classroom or courtyard, there are more toys—horses, carts, spades, buckets.

Indeed Mme. Kergomard, *Inspectrice Générale des Ecoles Maternelles*, would like to see each child bring its own toy to school in the morning. The children spend a longer time in the playground, which they have entirely to themselves. I saw teachers sitting in the playground with needlework while the children played, school being slack in July with many away in the country.

Their manual work consists largely in making artificial flowers, unravelling (abolished by the late School Board for English children), plaiting paper and straw, cotton embroidery in perforated card, threading beads, making rag dolls, paper envelopes, woolly balls, etc. Every school has a cupboard of infant productions to show, of commendable variety.

On the other hand the French school buildings cannot compare with those constructed for the infants in England. The halls here are brighter and airier, the ventilation is better, the pictures on the walls are prettier. Our children march, sing and dance to the music of a piano, unknown in Paris schools, which is infinitely more enspiriting than a tuning fork. The fresh flowers which adorn our schools are never seen in a Paris school, neither are the many pots of growing seeds and bulbs or the bowls of fish, visible in the schools. Another feature adding to the gloom of the *Ecole Maternelle* is the black dress invariably worn by the Directrice. Her assistants are also in black and many of the children wear black pinafores. Lastly one regrettable blemish still remains in our infants schools which has long since vanished from the *Ecole Maternelle*, if indeed it ever existed, *corporal punishment*. There is no doubt it is high time this was absolutely forbidden for children aged from three to seven.

#### GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

It is evident that two such institutions for the care of young children under compulsory school age, such as the crèches and *Ecoles Maternelles*, originating from different sources and managed by different administrations must have a few obvious defects. This difference in origin and administration constitutes in itself a grave disadvantage, and one that is readily acknowledged by the authorities dealing with both institutions.

Undoubtedly both crèche and *Ecole Maternelle* should be under the same roof.

Again, though both receive municipal grants, there is no connection between the two. Organisation, management, food, rules, the training of directrices, salaries, duties, occupations are entirely different; hence needless suffering for a child passing from one to the other.

The crèche is emphatically a nursery, from which children are often transferred at the age of two. From being washed, clothed, fed, and attended by a trained attendant with but twelve children to look after, it is taken to the *Ecole Maternelle* where the teacher has forty children at least to attend to, and where individual attention is practically impossible. It has to sit on a hard bench longer than is good for a child of two, and it gets no sleep in the daytime.

The training of teachers for the *Ecoles Maternelles* is quite unsuited to the demand of these schools, viz., the care of children from two to six.

Again, there is much waste of opportunity. Owing to the different administrations it is impossible for girls in the upper

standards of the elementary schools to gain that experience in the management of babies that seems so necessary in these days of threatened physical deterioration. The lectures given by Mme. Léon Levy in the crèche at Montluçon are suggestive.

#### SUGGESTIONS.

Lastly in the event of any provision by way of Day Nurseries being made for the young children under compulsory school age in England (and the present waste of child life as shown by the tables of infant mortality is lamentable) the following points may be borne in mind:—

The Day Nurseries in the large towns should receive the children of working mothers as well as ignorant and indifferent mothers from the age of fifteen days to five years.

Payment should be made by these mothers.

The Day Nursery should be part of the Infants' School and under the same head. It should consist of two sections, the first from fifteen days to three years under a trained nurse, the second from three to five under a teacher who shall have had three months' training in a children's hospital.

The whole Infants' School should be visited by lady doctors and be under Government inspection.

Each Day Nursery should be under a committee of ladies as managers, only with responsible duties.

The girls from the upper standards of the elementary schools should receive some training in the management of young children. This might be combined with the Housewifery course.

Girls of the elementary schools should learn to make garments for crèche use, and should do some of the washing and cooking.

Private Day Nurseries should be encouraged on the same lines in which the girls attending the Non-Provided Schools might practise. They also should be under Government inspection, preferably by women.

M. B. SYNGE.

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## APPENDIX A.

PROPORTION OF CHILD POPULATION UNDER COMPULSORY  
SCHOOL AGE (6) PROVIDED FOR IN CRÈCHES AND  
ÉCOLES MATERNELLES. (1904.)

PARIS.

Arr.	Crèche (public).	Beds.	Crèche (private).	Beds.	Ec. Mat. (public).	Children.	Ec. Mat. (private).	Children.	Population (1901).
I.	1	40	1	25	2	288	-	-	63,209
II.	2	65	-	-	3	859	-	-	63,485
III.	1	38	-	-	5	1,361	-	-	88,839
IV.	1	20	2	105	9	2,008	-	-	99,182
V.	3	100	-	-	7	1,403	4	656	117,320
VI.	1	30	1	25	4	669	-	-	100,185
VII.	-	-	3	140	5	726	4	339	98,500
VIII.	-	-	2	70	2	104	3	539	102,625
IX.	1	40	1	20	3	654	2	280	120,842
X.	2	60	-	-	8	2,219	1	289	154,693
XI.	2	53	1	25	15	4,142	2	461	233,697
XII.	2	80	1	20	10	3,491	5	584	128,956
XIII.	4	169	2	100	10	4,387	2	220	126,508
XIV.	3	180	1	36	10	2,924	4	416	139,739
XV.	3	110	1	30	12	4,459	6	365	152,099
XVI.	2	55	1	30	5	898	2	169	117,087
XVII.	4	95	3	160	11	2,650	5	730	199,338
XVIII.	3	107	1	50	15	4,865	4	842	247,460
XIX.	4	134	2	75	13	3,986	2	628	143,187
XX.	4	157	-	-	19	5,721	3	556	163,601
	43	1,533	23	911	168	47,814	49	7,074	2,660,559

*Summary.*

In 1904 there were 43 public + 23 private Crèches accommodating ... ..	2,444 Children
In 1904 there were 168 public + 49 private Ecoles Maternelles accommodating ... ..	54,888   "
	<u>57,332   "</u>

In 1896 there were 157,205 Children under 6 in Paris.

In 1896 there were 2,666,873 { Children between 2 and  
6 in France (M. Bédorez).

In 1896 there were 4,636,381 { Children between 6 and  
13 in France.

PROPORTION OF CHILD POPULATION UNDER COMPULSORY  
SCHOOL AGE PROVIDED FOR IN CRÈCHES AND ECOLES  
MATERNELLES.

FRANCE.

In France (1907) there are 322 Crèches in the Depts., 68 in Paris, 44 Dept. de la Seine ... ..	434 Crèches.
In France (1897) there were 2,509 { Ecoles Maternelles } (public) containing	454,474 Children
In France (1897) there were 3,350 { Ecoles Maternelles } (private) containing	283,095   "
Total - - 5,859	<u>737,569   "</u>

The average per 1,000 children in Ecoles Maternelles between the ages  
of 2 and 6 for the year 1897 is 2.2.\*

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\* Page 23, Statistique de l'Enseignement primaire, 1904.

## APPENDIX B.

## RULES OF THE SOCIETY OF CRÈCHES, FOUNDED IN 1846.

## I.—OBJECT AND MEMBERSHIP OF THE SOCIETY.

Art. 1.—The object of the Society is : (1) To help to found and to maintain Crèches ; (2) to perfect and extend the institution of the same.

Art. 2.—The Society is composed of Titular, Honorary, and Corresponding Members.

Titular Members are all persons who, admitted by the Administrative Council, pay a yearly subscription of not less than 6 francs.

The title of Honorary Member is given by the Administrative Council for services rendered to the Society or to the Institution of the Crèches.

The title of Corresponding Member is given to persons who, not residing in Paris, maintain a connection with the Society by helping to carry on its work.

## II.—ADMINISTRATION OF THE SOCIETY.

Art. 3.—The Society is managed by a Council consisting of fifty titular members appointed for six years. A sixth part of the Council is renewed annually.

Art. 4.—The Council elects for three years a President, two Vice-Presidents, a Censor, an Assistant Censor, a Secretary-Registrar, an Assistant Secretary-Registrar, a Director of Expenditure, an Assistant Director, a Treasurer, and an Assistant Treasurer.

Elections take place by ballot, according to the strict majority of votes.

Art. 5.—The Council is responsible for the moral and material management of the Society.

It meets at least four times a year. The attendance of a minimum of eleven members is necessary to render any resolution valid.

Decisions relative to the acquisition, transfer, or exchange of property, and to the acceptance of donations or legacies, are subject to the previous authorisation of the Government.

Art. 6.—In the intervals of the meetings of the Council, its functions are carried on by an Administrative Committee composed of officers mentioned in Art. 5 and of four other members of the Council nominated by election and also appointed for three years.

Art. 7.—The Administrative Committee meets every month. Five members constitute a quorum. Official reports of its meetings are always communicated to the Council.

Art. 8.—The President represents the Society ; he directs the working of the Council and of the Committee : he has the casting vote, and may convene extraordinary meetings of the Council and of the Committee.

Art. 9.—Members of the Council and of the Administrative Committee may be re-elected.

All the functions of the Society are gratuitous.

## III.—REVENUE AND FINANCE.

Art. 10.—The funds of the Society are obtained from :—

1. The income derived from any property in its possession.
2. Annual subscriptions.
3. Donations from Honorary and Corresponding Members—and all other persons.
4. Grants and legacies which the Society is legally authorised to accept.
5. Subsidies granted by the authorities.

6. Money collected upon special occasions, fêtes, concerts, exhibitions, etc.

7. The sale of any books or works offered to the Society with this object, or published by the same.

Art. 11.—The treasurer is responsible for the receipts, expenditure and all that has to do with the accounts. He makes a report of his dealings after each transaction.

Art. 12.—One-twentieth part of the receipts is set aside every year to form a reserve fund which is invested in Government stock or in French railway shares.

#### IV.—GENERAL MANAGEMENT.

Art. 13.—The Society annually holds a public meeting, of which the programme, determined by the Council, includes a report on the transactions and conditions of the work.

No report or address may be read at the annual meeting, and nothing published, which has not previously been examined and approved by the administrative Committee or the Council of Administration. The report is published and addressed to M. le Ministère de l'Interieur, to M. le Ministère de l'Instruction Publique, to M. le Prefect de la Seine, and to M. le Prefect de Police.

Art. 14.—Private Rules, drawn up by the Council of Administration, determine in detail the measures necessary for the enforcement of the Statutes.

Art. 15.—No alteration in the statutes can be considered otherwise than at a special meeting, and on the motion of five members of the Council ; it can be adopted only at a second special meeting, and after securing two-thirds of the votes.

It is subject to the approval of the Government.

Art. 16.—In the event of the breaking up of the Society, the Council of Administration will determine, subject to the approval of the Government the manner in which the funds will be disposed. This disposal will have to be in conformity with the object of the Society.



APPENDIX C.

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SPECIMEN COPY OF RULES FOR CRÈCHES.

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FOR MOTHERS USING THE CRÈCHE.

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Open from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m.

I.—AGE.

Children are received at the Crèche from the age of three weeks to three years.

II.—CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION.

1. Birth certificate.
2. Vaccination certificate.
3. Certificate of health from M. ——. Consulting hours 12.30 to 1.30 daily
4. Mother's address.
5. Address of employer. This must be given to the Directrice when the child is brought.

III.—MOTHER'S OBLIGATIONS.

The mother must bring her child regularly in a clean condition. After illness or absence of eight days the child must have a fresh certificate from the crèche doctor before re-entering. If the mother is feeding her child she must attend for this purpose at least twice a day.

IV.—RESTRICTIONS.

A waiting-room is put at the disposal of the mothers. They are advised not (sometimes forbidden) to go into the play-room or bedrooms, but to see their children through a glass door.

V.—GENERAL RULES.

The Directrice has complete authority in the crèche. She is authorised to admit the children every morning—she can refuse those who seem ill. She need not admit those whose mothers do not submit to these rules.

VI.—COMPLAINTS.

All complaints to be addressed to the Lady President—address———

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## APPENDIX D.

DETAILED EXPENSES OF CRÈCHE FOURCADE (MODEL) FOR  
CURRENT YEAR, 1906.

	frs.	cs.
1. Insurance and taxes - - - - -	723	55
Repairs - - - - -	1,562	50
2. Staff—Wages of directrice - - - - -	1,200	50
" <i>berceuses</i> - - - - -	3,895	50
Gratuities - - - - -	170	50
3. Food—Milk - - - - -	1,870	70
Other provisions - - - - -	4,308	50
4. Lighting - - - - -	424	40
5. Warming - - - - -	1,554	60
6. Water - - - - -	325	20
7. Laundry - - - - -	674	80
8. Furniture - - - - -	1,030	15
9. Linen and clothes - - - - -	2,114	40
10. Chemist and disinfectants - - - - -	175	90
11. Sundries - - - - -	549	15
Christmas tree - - - - -	357	10
Administrative expenses - - - - -	80	50
	<u>21,017</u>	<u>95</u>

## APPENDIX E.

DETAILS OF LAUNDRY FOR 25 CHILDREN MAKING 7,722  
ATTENDANCES IN A YEAR OF 297 DAYS.

- 15,741 napkins (5 per day, 1 month to 7 months ; 3 per day, 7 months to 12 months ; 2 per day, 12 months to 16 months).
- 13,959 towels (4 per day, 1 month to 7 months ; 3 per day, 7 months to 12 months ; 2 per day, 12 months to 16 months).
- 1,904 sheets (3 per week, 1 month to 7 months ; 2 per week, 7 months to 12 months ; 1 per week, 12 months to 16 months ; 2 per month, 16 months to 3 years).
- 1,976 pinafores—2 per week.
- 1,976 handkerchiefs—2 per week.
- 50 mosquito curtains.
- 594 housecloths—2 per day.
- 624 aprons for *berceuses*—4 per week.
- 624 blouses for *berceuses*—4 per week.
- 156 caps for *berceuses*—1 per week.

COST OF MAINTENANCE.

	frs.	cs.
Wages of <i>berceuses</i> , 297 days at 2 frs. 50 c. -	742	50
Firing -	96	
Water -	33	80
Soap, soda, etc. -	84	
Interest at 4 per cent. on 5,000 frs. spent on building laundry -	200	
Upkeep -	100	
	<u>1,256</u>	<u>30</u>

It is estimated that washing on the premises is an economy, and that washing of crèche sent to public laundries would amount to just double above sum.

## APPENDIX F.

TABLE OF INFANT GROWTH DURING FIRST YEAR.\*

Mois.	Poids.	Accroissement en poids		Taille	Accroisse- ment par mois	Quantité de lait par jour
		Mois	Jour			
Nais- sance	3k250	"	"	50 c/m	"	"
1	4 "	750 gr.	25 gr.	53	4 c/m(sic)	600 gr.
2	4 750	750	25	56	3	650
3	5 450	700	23	58	2	700
4	6 100	650	22	60	2	750
5	6 700	600	20	62	2	800
6	7 250	550	18	63	1	850
7	7 750	500	17	64	1	900
8	8 200	450	15	65	1	950
9	8 600	400	13	66	1	950
10	8 950	350	12	67	1	1,000
11	9 250	300	10	67 50	0 50	1,000
12	9 500	250	8	68	0 50	1,000

Pendant les douze premiers mois de son existence un enfant, nourri au sein, ou autrement, doit, chaque jour, augmenter de poids suivant le tableau ci-dessous :

Mois .....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Augmentation en grammes ...	30.6	31	27.4	22.4	18.14	14.8	12.8	11.4	11	8.4	7.4	5.6

\* From the *Bulletin of the Société des Crèches.*

## APPENDIX G.

SYLLABUS OF LESSONS ON THE CARE OF INFANTS, GIVEN BY  
MME. LÉON LÉVY, AT CRÈCHE ST. JACQUES, MONTLUÇON.

## FIRST LESSON.

*In the Linen-Room.*

Indispensable articles of a layette.

For infants under 1 year—chemise with sleeves, a bodice, a flannel waist bandage, swaddling clothes and napkins.

For infants over 1 year—a chemise without sleeves, a flannel waist-bandage, a petticoat with bodice, drawers, a dress or pinafore.

*Principles.*

(a) Always to sacrifice prettiness to comfort.

(b) See above everything that the child is free and unconstrained.

Freedom for the circulation of the blood and liberty of movement. No tight strings, no pins, and above all no needles.

Do not forget its tender skin and soft bones, its brain—the skull does not protect it—the spinal column ; why the child is better lying down.

*Clothing.*

For choice—linen, calico and wool—of good quality, strong and dyed. Cleaning and mending, washing, dry in the open air. Do not iron what touches the body. No lace.

*The Use of Clothing.*

For warmth, chills, sweats—light head covering, large shoes, the lower extremities to be kept warm.

## SECOND LESSON.

*In the Kitchen.*

Bear in mind :—

(a) A milk diet exclusively, till the child is at least 7 months old, and longer still if teething is backward.

The sterilisation of milk. Bottles, easy to clean ; mouth-pieces, easy to clean, to be soaked in clean water. How to choose and keep them clean.

(b) The diet should be almost entirely liquid till teething is over. Add to the milk lightly cooked eggs, milk soups, ground barley, ground rice, vegetable flours, broths, and *panades*.

(c) Regular bottles and meals promote good digestion ; a meal every 2 hours till the age of 3 months, then a meal every 3 hours till the age of 3 years.

(d) Ascertain by weighing, and not by guessing, that the weight of the child shows increase by about 1 oz., then by  $\frac{1}{2}$  oz., then  $\frac{3}{4}$  oz., after the age of one year by at least  $\frac{1}{4}$  oz., per day. Weigh the child in a cloth at the baker's every month, and divide the weight gained by 30, to ascertain the average gained each day.

*Indigestion.*

(a) *Sickness*.—A child may sometimes throw up its milk immediately after a meal without being ill. It means that it has taken too much milk at a time or taken it too quickly. A child that throws up curdled milk sometimes after a meal has not digested it. Mix lime water with its milk or give it a spoonful of Eau de Vichy before each bottle. In this case leave more time rather than less between the bottles.

- (b) *Diarrhoea*.—When a child has no longer the solid and yellow evacuations of a healthy state (too constant and too liquid) dilute the milk with rice water or lime water. On a doctor's advice give a few drops of tincture of paregoric.
- (c) *Constipation*.—A child should have at least one movement every 12 hours. If not, dilute its milk with barley water, give doses of camomile or a spoonful of liquid honey.

### THIRD LESSON.

#### *In the Bath-room.*

Hygiene of the skin. The skin should act as well as the lungs. Cleansing baths, water with lather of soap; strengthening baths, salt water; quieting baths, lime and starch; invigorating baths, bran. Observe: A bath can be given in a wash-tub every day in water at a temperature of 37° C. (*i.e.*, about 96° Fahr.) warm to the hand without fear of the child catching cold, if it is well dried. Powder it afterwards with flour wherever needed.

Take particular care of its eyes, nose, and ears. Lotions and hot compresses of boracic water and camomile, or plain boiled water.

Keep the hair short, wash and soap the head every day. Rub with a soft brush dipped in spirits of wine and glycerine.

Clean the brushes and combs with ammonia water. Each child should have its own comb and towel. Avoid sponges, use *coton hydrophile*.

The cleaning of w.c.s, disinfection. Cess pools, ventilation.

### FOURTH LESSON.

#### *In the Bedrooms and Pouponnat.*

Concerning bedding—Its composition and maintenance; fresh air; position of bed. Lay the child on its side. Never in the same bed as a grown-up person, horizontal position the best; cleanliness; avoid rocking.

#### *The Pouponnière.*

Choose games without danger. Freedom of movement in a guarded place. Avoid staircases, corners, fire, matches, boiling water.

### FIFTH LESSON.

#### *Hygiene and Medicine for Infants.*

- (a) *Diarrhoea*.—Regular milk diet. Lime water. Rice water.
- (b) *Ophthalmia*.—Avoid draughts. Bathings and lotions of warm water and water with boracic and camomile. (NOTE.—Explain their contagion.)
- (c) *Small Pox*.—Vaccinate before the age of 3 months. (NOTE.—As early as possible.)
- (d) *Ulcerations*.—Extreme cleanliness—dry well—powder with lycopodium. (NOTE.—Here it would be well to speak of ringworm and its infection and need of prompt care.)

Symptoms by which one recognises :—

- (a) Measles.—Running eyes—cold—cough—rash.
- (b) Whooping cough.—Continuous nervous cough without bronchial sounds.
- (c) Croup.—Cough with loss of voice—grey spots in the throat. The child cannot say "one."
- (d) False croup.—Hoarse cough that yields to fomentations of boiling water on the neck.
- (e) Scarlet fever.—Sore throat—sickness—headache. In all these illnesses isolate the children as soon as possible and send for the doctor.

*Remedies for the following Accidents.*

- (a) *Blows, Contusions.*—Compress of arnica. (NOTE.—Clear water is preferable to arnica—which sometimes produces eruptions.)
- (b) *Burns.*—Compress of pueric acid, or failing that exclusion of the air by a clean greasy substance or a tight bandage to exclude air.
- (c) *Hemorrhage* (from the nose).—A dose of antipyrine, one grain at most.
- (d) *Dislocated Joints.*—Paregoric. Dose of bismuth (on a doctor's order).
- (e) *Convulsions.*—Mustard plaster to the legs, half a spoonful of syrup ether—or rubbings over the chest with ether—tepid baths of lime—dose of camomile.
- (f) *Cuts and Wounds.*—A good washing of very hot water. (Boiling water is antiseptic.) Suck the wound. Join the edges with bands of plaster. (NOTE.—Goldbeater's skin and gummed lustering are better than diachylum.) Cause them to be sewn up if necessary. Bandage carefully. Do not touch any wound except with scrupulously clean hands and nails.
- (g) *(h), (i) Broken Bones, Sprains, Dislocations.*—Bend the arms—extend the legs—cold compress of clean water—absolute immobility for all cases.

If after a fall a child cannot use an injured member without pain, send for a doctor without trying any remedies.

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## APPENDIX H.

## INSTRUCTIONS ON FEEDING.

The following instructions have recently been addressed to the Directrices of Crèches for distribution from the Académie of Medicine, 1906 :—

1. The mother's milk is the only natural nourishment ; no other can compare with it.

This should be given at least every two hours during the day, but only twice during the night, rest being necessary for both mother and child.

The child should receive nothing in between, even if it cries. The child should be suckled for as long a time as possible. It is specially desirable during the months of June, July, August, and September to have no artificial feeding, except in cases of illness.

Every woman who wishes the best for her child should abstain from alcoholic drink ; she ought to abstain from anything containing alcohol—as wine, beer, cider, etc.

2. Mixed feeding has to be resorted to when the mother's milk is insufficient at the end of or during the time she is feeding the child. She must then supplement the child's nourishment by adding a sufficient quantity of animal milk.

3. Artificial feeding is milk from ass, goat, or cow. It must be ascertained for certain that the milk used is neither skim, nor adulterated, nor contaminated. A doctor should decide whether the milk should be given pure, diluted, or sweetened.

It should always be given luke-warm. The germs which produce disease (gastro-enteritis, tubercular disease, typhoid, etc.) may be destroyed by boiling, by pasteurisation, by warming in a saucepan to 100 degrees, by sterilisation above 100 degrees.

Milk boiled or warmed to 100 degrees in a saucepan should be consumed in the course of twenty-four hours—sterilised milk may be kept longer.

To give the milk to a child use a spoon or glass—these can easily be cleaned. A feeding bottle can be used on condition that it is made without a tube. *All tube bottles are very dangerous and should be forbidden.* The mixing of milk, when necessary, should be done with water recently boiled. Before giving the child any milk, it should be tasted to be sure that there is no bad taste or smell.

4. When weaning the child should have more than milk. Gradual weaning is better than sudden. It is less full of risks than when a child is very young. It should never take place during months of great heat. Solid food given too soon is very dangerous.

These rules are closely followed in the crèche. Great stress is laid on the mothers feeding their own children, all statistics on infant mortality showing increased strength of breast-fed children.



## APPENDIX J.

## BAINS-DOUCHES AT THE ECOLE MATERNELLE.

BY MME. GIRARD.

(INSPECTRICE DES ECOLES MATERNELLES DE LA SEINE.)

In 1905 I wrote at the end of my report after visiting a school in the suburbs of Paris: "Here is a school marvellously arranged with large and airy class rooms. Nevertheless at the end of a few minutes spent here one is nearly suffocated; there is an unendurable smell which is sickening, till one is obliged to throw open the windows in order to breath without disgust. It amounts to this—the children are hopelessly filthy. They belong to a population of rag pickers, miserable people, and the taste for cleanliness is almost unknown in their midst.

"These children—a generation ago—would have tumbled about in the gutters or on the dusty roads. With splendid energy we have built them a palace, we have called them into it and they have come. We are teaching them by word and example to occupy themselves, to become better and to live sociably together. But is this sufficient? No. This exertion, admirable though it is, is not enough. Now that the children are no longer in the streets, now that we have claimed them, we must elevate them. And the first thing to do is to wash them, every day if possible, at least once a week, all over.

"So much was tentative, but it had results. Progress, though slow, is coming. In our schools, we are learning the necessity of cleanliness as we learn in certain sanatoriums for consumptives to breathe. How can we put into practice the idea of baths for the Ecoles Maternelles as they are given at Bordeaux? The idea attracted me and I sought means to realise it. In a good school of the 18th arr. a bathroom existed, but for many reasons it was unused. The medical inspector of the school, to whom the matter was referred, declared that baths in schools were not very safe, as the staff entrusted with this work did not know in what condition of health the children might be at the time, and serious mistakes might be made from an hygienic point of view. The doctor further remarked that any illness or accident whatever that might occur subsequently would be assuredly put down to this act and that the responsibility of the school staff was open to question on the subject. He also added, that the slightest negligence with regard to the temperature of the bath or in the drying of children after the bath might have very serious effects on their health.

"I continued a searching investigation. I interested the Directrice on the subject, and I cannot be too grateful to her for her help. Thanks to the ready co-operation of all, the dream became an accomplished fact. Anxious not to tax the staff already so full of work, and considering the moderate amount of our resources, we organised as follows: every Saturday the necessitous children, furnished with a written authority from either father or mother, could go to the bathroom. The Directrice, who was very keen, helped in the work herself. Two women were specially selected for the work, one undressed the children, the other bathed, dried, and redressed the little ones according to the instructions of a lady doctor who helped to arrange the rules and regulate the hygienic conditions. Thanks to voluntary contributions, the necessary sponges and towels were forthcoming, also a little stock of skirts and chemises. Two indiarubber caps, absolutely hygienic, were bought, and after each child's use they were plunged into warm water, so that no heads were wetted.

"On the first day thirty children were douched and bathed in three hours. The parents were delighted and gladly sent their children again and again.

"This is simple social education, and on this subject it is the example that matters. Once the custom of cleanliness is acquired, the need arises and the rest will follow."

## APPENDIX K.

## MODEL TIME TABLE FOR THE SCHOOLS IN THE DEPARTMENT DE LA SEINE.

IV.—Emploi du temps<sup>s</sup> modèle pour les écoles du département de la Seine.

HEURES.	LUNDI	MARDI	MERCREDI	VENDREDI	SAMEDI
De 9 h. à 9 h. 1/4	Inspection de propreté. — Conduite aux cabinets. — Entrée en classe.  Exercices de lecture, d'écriture et de langage.  Récréation. --- Jeux scolaires ou gymnastique.				
De 9 h. 1/4 à 10 h. 1/4					
De 10 h. 1/4 à 10 h. 3/4					
De 10 h. 3/4 à 11 h. 1/2	A nevelotes, rectis, biographies tirées de l'histoire nationale, contes, rectis de voyages, notions de géographie	Leçons de choses	Comme le lundi	Comme le lundi	Comme le lundi
De 11 h. 1/2 à 1 h.		Sortie de la classe. — Déjeuner. — Récréation.			
De 1 h. à 1 h. 1/4		Conduite aux cabinets et aux lavabos. — Rentrée en classe.			
De 1 h. 1/4 à 1 h. 3/4	Exercices de lecture et de langage.				
De 1 h. 3/4 à 2 h. 1/2		Chant	Calcul	Calcul	Chant
De 2 h. 1/2 à 3 h.		Récréation. — Jeux scolaires ou gymnastique.			
De 3 h. à 3 h. 1/2	Dessin	Morale	Dessin	Dessin	Morale
De 3 h. 1/2 à 4 h.		Travail manuel.			

Le jeudi et les jours assimilés au jeudi par l'article 2 du règlement, pour la répartition du service, la classe du matin commencera à 9 h. 1/2, se terminera à 11 h. 1/2 et sera comptée par une récréation d'une 1/2 h.; la classe du soir commencera à 1 h. 1/2, se terminera à 4 h. et sera comptée par une récréation de 3/4 d'h. Le programme des classes du jeudi comprendra surtout des entrées, des récits, des exercices de dessin et de travail manuel et des chants. Pour chacune des classes de l'école, l'emploi du temps, établi par la directrice conformément aux indications générales ci-dessus et avec les modifications que nécessitent les jeux scolaires et les exercices de gymnastique, sera approuvé par l'inspecteur primaire et par l'inspectrice des écoles maternelles. Il sera affiché dans les classes.

1.—*Ecoles tenues par une Directrice et une Adjointe.*

De 8 h. à 8 h. 1/2. Directrice.  
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h. . Adjointe.  
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4. Directrice.  
De 12 1/4 à 1 h. . . Adjointe.

## SERVICE D'ÉTÉ

De 7 à 8 heures. Directrice.  
De 8 à 9 heures. Adjointe.  
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4. Directrice.  
De 12 h. 1/4 à 1 h. Adjointe.

2.—*Ecoles tenues par une Directrice et deux Adjointes : A et B.*

De 8 à 9 heures. . Directrice.  
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h. 1 adjointe. (Roulement entre  
les deux adjointes.)  
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4. Adjointe A ou B.  
De 12 1/4 à 1 h. . — B ou A.

## SERVICE D'ÉTÉ.

De 7 à 8 heures.	Directrice.	} Roulement.
De 8 à 9 heures.	Adjointe A.	
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h.	— B.	
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h.	Directrice.	
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4.	Adjointe A ou B.	
De 12 h. 1/4 à 1 h.	— B ou A.	

3.—*Ecoles tenues par une Directrice et trois Adjointes : A, B, C.*

De 8 à 9 heures...	Directrice.	
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h..	Adjointe A.	
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4.	2 adjointes B, C.	} Roulement entre les adjointes. en trois jours
De 12 1/4 à 1 h...	Adjointe A.	

## SERVICE D'ÉTÉ.

De 7 à 8 heures.	Directrice.	
De 8 à 9 heures.	Adjointe B, ou C, ou A.	} Roulement en 3 jours
De 8 1/2 à 9 h.	— A, ou B, ou C.	
De 8 1/2 à 9 h.	Directrice.	
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4	2 adjointes	} Roulement en 3 jours.
De 12 1/4 à 1 h.	Adjointe	

**Service du soir : Comme ci-dessus.**

124 *Provision in France for Children under School Age.*

4.—*Ecoles tenues par une Directrice et quatre Adjointes : A, B, C, D.*

SERVICE D'HIVER.

	1 <sup>er</sup> jour	2 <sup>e</sup> jour	3 <sup>e</sup> jour	4 <sup>e</sup> jour
De 8 à 9 heures ...	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h. ...	A	B	C	D
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h. ...	B	C	D	A
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4...	C	D	A	B
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4...	D	A	B	C
De 12 1/4 à 1 h. ...	A	B	C	D
De 12 1/4 à 1 h. ...	B	C	D	A

Service du Soir : Comme ci-dessus.

SERVICE D'ÉTÉ.

	1 <sup>er</sup> jour	2 <sup>e</sup> jour	3 <sup>e</sup> jour	4 <sup>e</sup> jour
De 7 à 8 heures ...	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice
De 8 à 9 heures ...	A	B	C	D
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h. ...	B	C	D	A
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h. ...	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4...	C	D	A	B
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4...	D	A	B	C
De 12 h. 1/4 à 1 h....	A	B	C	D
De 12 h. 1/4 à 1 h....	B	C	D	A

Service du Soir : Comme ci-dessus.

5.—*Ecoles tenues par une Directrice et cinq Adjointes : A, B, C, D, E.*

SERVICE D'HIVER.

	1 <sup>er</sup> jour	2 <sup>e</sup> jour	3 <sup>e</sup> jour	4 <sup>e</sup> jour	5 <sup>e</sup> jour
De 8 à 9 heures.	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h.	A	B	C	D	E
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h.	B	C	D	E	A
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4	C	D	E	A	B
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4	D	E	A	B	C
De 12 1/4 1 h.	E	A	B	C	D
De 12 1/4 à 1 h.	A	B	C	D	E

Service du soir : Comme ci-dessus.

SERVICE D'ÉTÉ.

	1 <sup>er</sup> jour	2 <sup>e</sup> jour	3 <sup>e</sup> jour	4 <sup>e</sup> jour	5 <sup>e</sup> jour
De 7 à 8 heures.	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice
De 8 à 9 heures.	A	B	C	D	E
De 8 à 9 heures.	B	C	D	E	A
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h.	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4	C	D	E	A	B
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4	D	E	A	B	C
De 12 1/4 à 1 h.	E	A	B	C	D
De 12 1/4 à 1 h.	A	B	C	D	E

Service du soir : Comme ci-dessus.

6.—*Ecoles tenues par une Directrice et six, sept ou huit Adjointes*

Mêmes règles que pour les Ecoles tenues par une Directrice et cinq adjointes, sauf que le roulement se fera en six, sept ou huit jours.

## APPENDIX L.

## MENUS IN ECOLES MATERNELLES.

Self-supporting at 10 centimes per child.)

*Monday.*—Pot-au-feu and lentils.  
*Tuesday.*—Soupe maigre and ragout of mutton.  
*Wednesday.*—Cabbage soup and sausage.  
*Thursday.*—Pot-au-feu and potatoes.  
*Friday.*—Pot-au-feu and haricots.  
*Saturday.*—Soupe maigre and haricots au lard.

*First Day.*—Soupe grasse and beef.  
*Second Day.*—Haricots, soup with sorrel and leek.  
*Third Day.*—Ragout of mutton and potatoes.  
*Fourth Day.*—Purée of peas or lentils and sausage.  
*Fifth Day.*—Soup, potato and cabbage with pork.

*Monday.*—Macaroni cheese.  
*Tuesday.*—Pot-au-feu.  
*Wednesday.*—Lentils au lard.  
*Thursday.*—Pot-au-feu.  
*Friday.*—Potato purée au lait.  
*Saturday.*—Pot-au-feu.

(At 20 centimes a child.)

*Monday.*—Ragout of mutton and potatoes.  
*Tuesday.*—Pot-au-feu.  
*Wednesday.*—Veal and macaroni.  
*Thursday.*—Pain de pommes and sausages.  
*Friday.*—Mutton and dried haricots.  
*Saturday.*—Roast beef and lentils.

## MENU FOR ONE MONTH.

(Adopted by the 19th arr. in Paris for the *Ecoles Maternelles*.  
 Approved by Mme. Girard.)

## FIRST WEEK.

*Monday.*—Leek and potato soup. Roast mutton minced. Apples.  
*Tuesday.*—Sorrel and rice soup. Roast mutton minced. Macaroni cheese.  
*Wednesday.*—Haricot beans and onions. Roast veal minced. White beans mashed.  
*Thursday.*—Leek and potato soup. Roast veal minced. Omelet.  
*Friday.*—Vegetable soup. Roast mutton minced. Spinach and gravy.  
*Saturday.*—Sorrel and potato soup. Roast mutton minced. Sweet rice pudding and cakes.

## SECOND WEEK.

*Monday.*—Vegetable Soup. Roast veal minced. Mashed potatoes.  
*Tuesday.*—Onion and potato soup. Roast veal minced. Cheese scallops.  
*Wednesday.*—Leek and potato soup. Roast mutton minced. Cooked salad.

*Thursday.*—Sorrel and rice or semolina soup. Roast mutton minced. Mashed potato and milk.

*Friday.*—Onion and haricot water soup. Veal minced. French beans.

*Saturday.*—Vegetable soup. Veal minced. Rice pudding and eggs. Figs.

#### THIRD WEEK.

*Monday.*—Sorrel and haricot bean soup. Minced mutton. White beans mashed.

*Tuesday.*—Leek and potato soup. Minced mutton. Mashed potato.

*Wednesday.*—Onion and lentil flour soup. Minced veal. Spinach and gravy.

*Thursday.*—Vegetable soup. Minced Veal. Cheese vermicelli.

*Friday.*—Leek and potato soup. Minced roast mutton. Apples.

*Saturday.*—Sorrel and rice soup. Minced roast mutton. Sweet rice pudding. Fruit.

#### FOURTH WEEK.

*Monday.*—Leek and potato soup. Minced roast veal. Mashed potato.

*Tuesday.*—Sorrel and rice or semolina soup. Minced roast veal. Macaroni cheese.

*Wednesday.*—Onion and haricot soup. Minced roast mutton. White beans mashed.

*Thursday.*—Leek and potato soup. Minced roast mutton. Rice pudding and eggs.

*Friday.*—Vegetable soup. Minced roast veal. Spinach and gravy.

*Saturday.*—Sorrel and potato soup. Minced roast veal. Potatoes in white sauce. Fruit.

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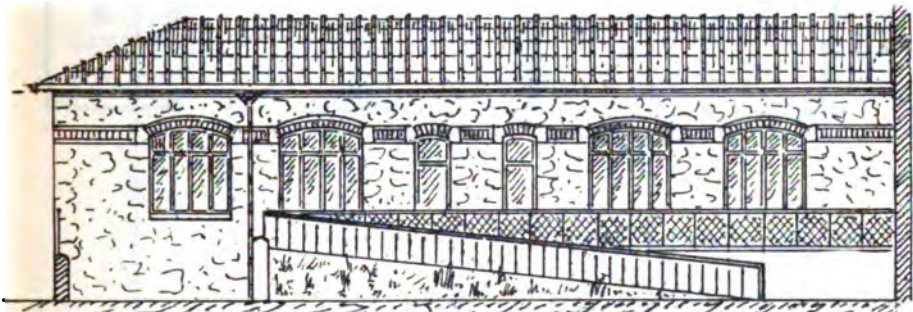
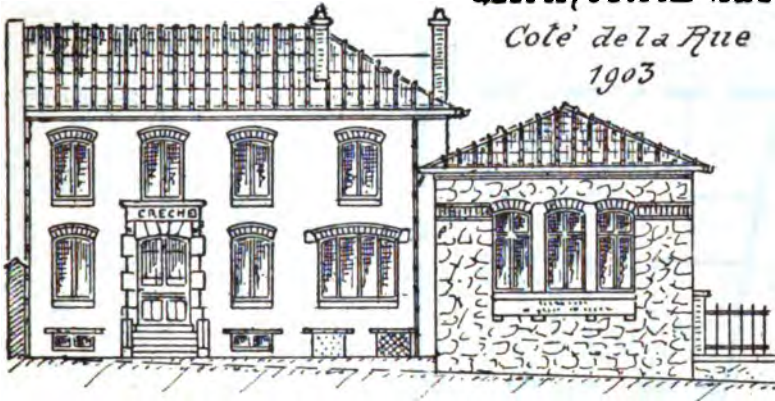
*Food flours.*—Pea, barley and chestnut flour, &c., to replace fresh vegetables in winter.

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## APPENDIX M.

## PLANS AND DETAILED COST OF BUILDING AND EQUIPMENT OF VARIOUS CRÈCHES.

## I

CHARONNE · XX<sup>e</sup>Côté de la Rue  
1903

Côté de la Cour

Dépense : 85,000 fr. plus 11,000 fr. pour les substructions.

Terrasse - - - - -	2,500	Planchers, ciment armé, canalis-	
Maçonnerie, Carrelage - - -	29,500	sation, dallage - - - -	15,500
Charpente, menuiserie, ser-		Parquets chêne - - - -	3,000
rurerie - - - - -	16,000	Fumisterie, marbrerie - -	1,000
Couverture, plomberie, eau et		Peinture, vitrerie, papiers -	5,500
gaz - - - - -	8,500	Branchement d'eau - - -	500
Calorifère air chaud - - -	2,500	Marbrerie - - - - -	500

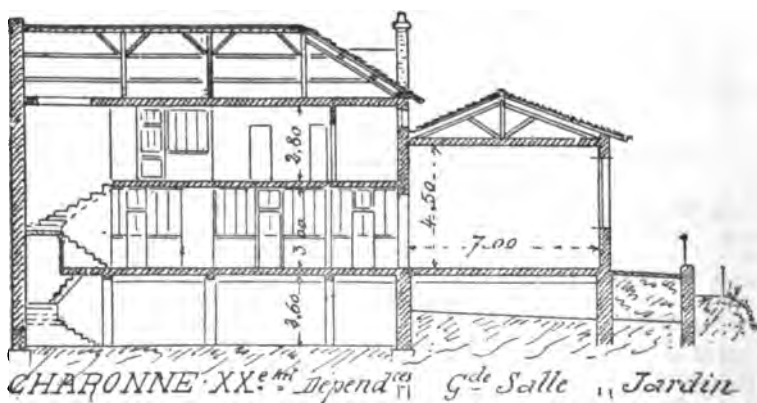
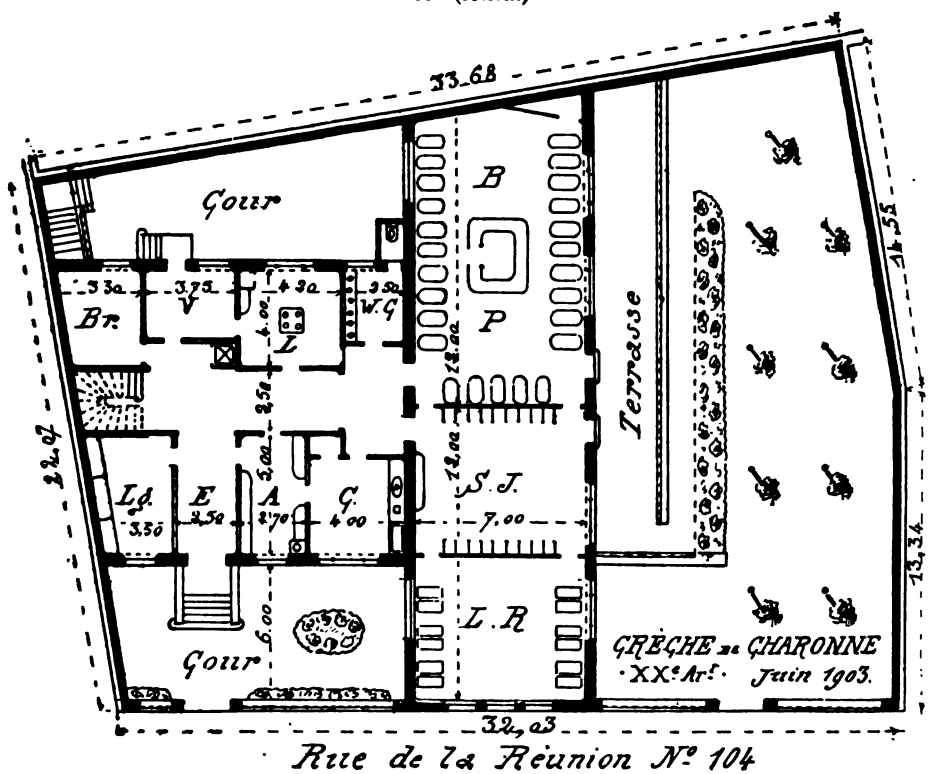
Cost of site not given.

Number of beds, 50.

Silver Medal, Paris Exhibition, 1900.

Architect M. PAUL MARBEAU.

I.—(contd.)







## III.

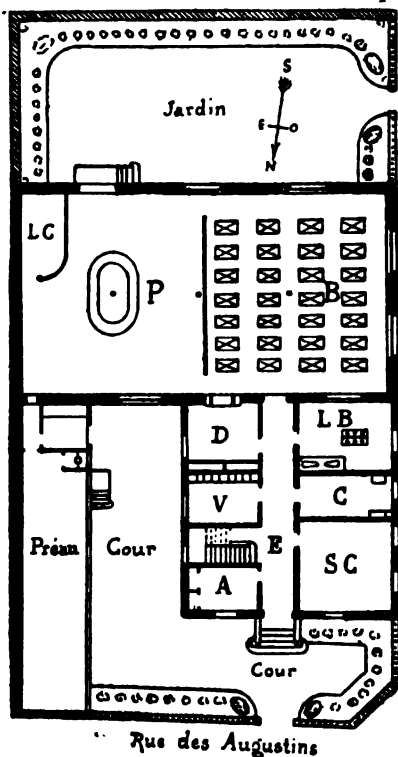
## ARGENTEUIL (Seine-et-Oise)

*Rue des Augustins.*

Crèche construite par M. Girardin, architecte.

Inaugurée le 9 novembre, 1899.

56 places.

Dépense totale  
de construction,  
53,480 fr.Et le terrain (603 mèt.),  
a coûté en plus,  
9,015 fr.

Maçonnerie	-	-	21,450
Carrelage	-	-	720
Bitumage	-	-	960
Charpente	-	-	3,295
Menuiserie	-	-	5,030
Serrurerie	-	-	5,489
Persiennes en fer	-	-	130
Couverture, Plomberie	-	-	4,159
Installation des eaux	-	-	302
Appareil à gaz	-	-	193
Electricité	-	-	408
Fumisterie	-	-	400
Calorifère	-	-	1,850
Peinture	-	-	1,856
Mobilier	-	-	898
Lavabos (syst. Scellier)	-	-	449
Lingerie	-	-	1,215
Literie	-	-	1,290
Linoléum et stores	-	-	976

Rue Pierre Jolly

Le terrain à 33 m 50 sur 18 m.

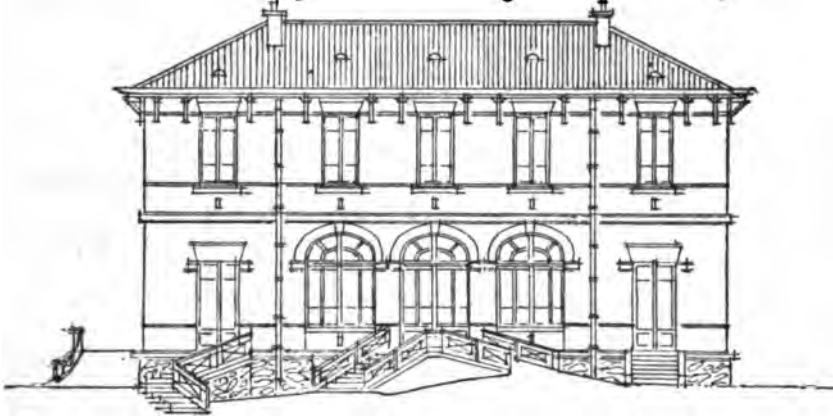
La salle des berceaux et la pouponnière mesurent ensemble 48 mètres sur 9 mètres 40.

Au sous-sol, la laiterie et la buanderie; au 1<sup>er</sup> ÉTAGE se trouvent la chambre d'isolement, le logement de la Directrice, etc.

Total 62 495fr. including site.

Architect, M. GIRARDIN.

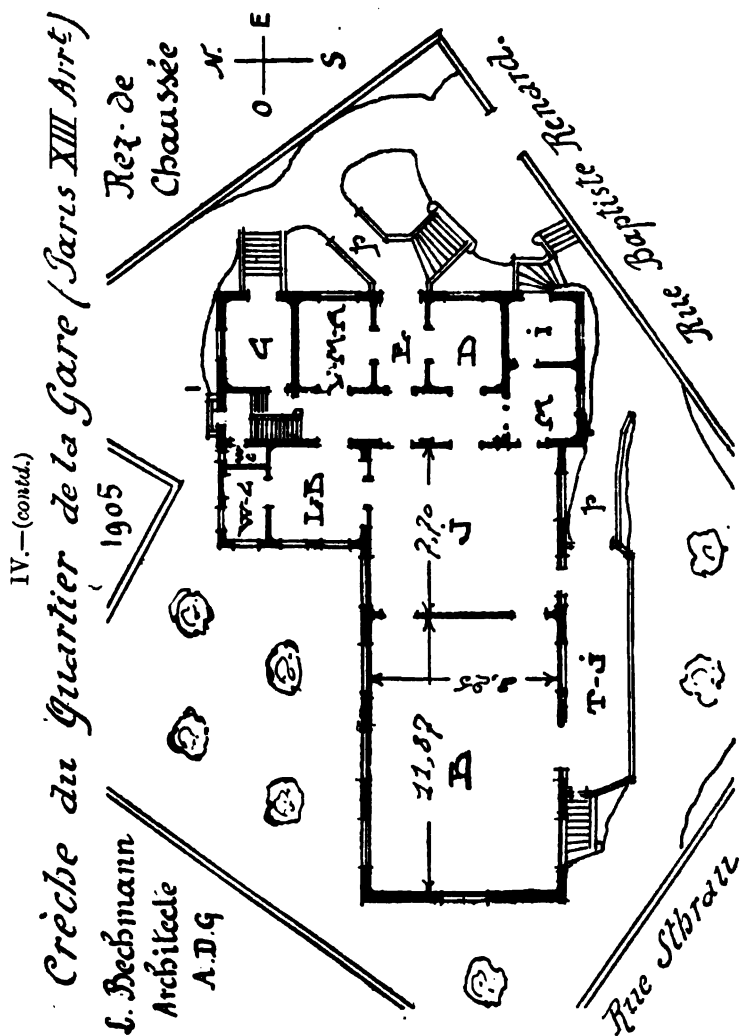
## IV.

*Crèche du Quartier de la Gare (XIII Arr<sup>t</sup>):*

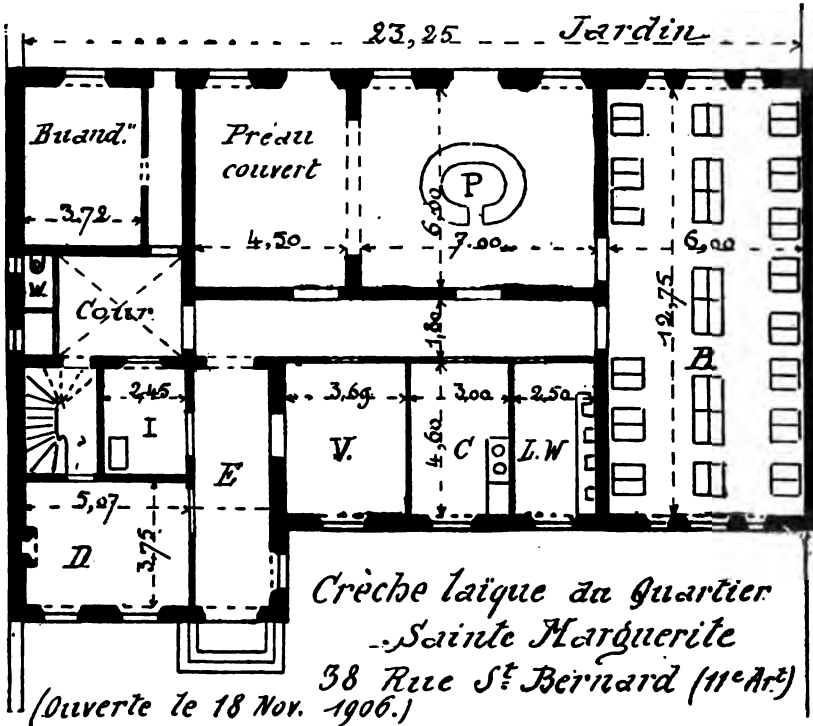
Total, 88,029fr. 60 c., without site.

Architect, M. BECHMANN.

	frs.		frs.
Terrassement - -	2,000.00	Plomberie, couverture - -	7,760.13
Maçonnerie - -	29,482.80	Peinture, vitrerie - -	3,199.98
Ciment et Béton - -	9,500.00	Calorifère à vapeur - -	4,100.00
Charpente, serrurerie -	9,659.13	Fumisterie - -	994.28
Canalisation - -	2,394.45	Stores, Jardinage, etc. -	1,147.00
Menuiserie et Parquets	7,797.05	Consolidation du Sous-sol	9,994.78
Number of beds, 60.			



V.



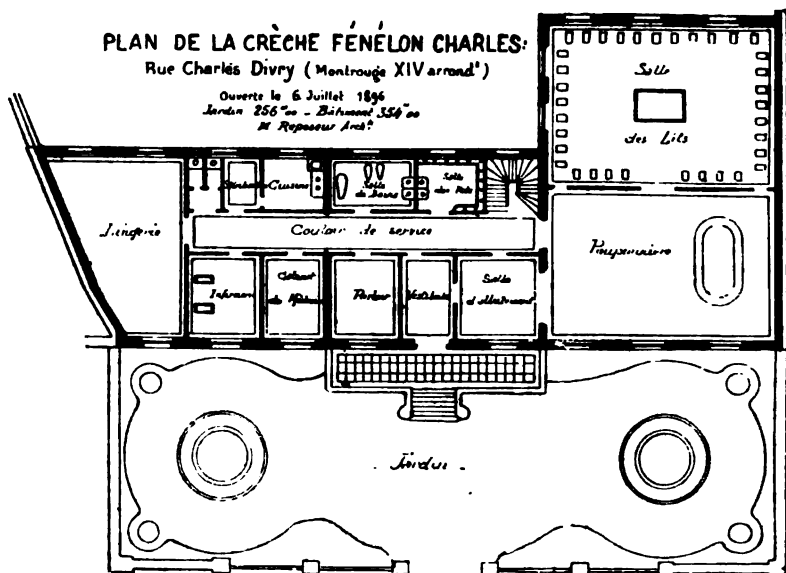
Total, 50,730fr., without site.

Architect, M. ADELGEIST.

	frs.		frs.
Maçonnerie	- 22,900	Calorifère	- 5,280
Serrurerie	- 4,500	Peinture	- 1,900
Charpente	- 2,800	Canalisation	- 2,200
Menuiserie	- 4,800	Mobilier, etc.	- 1,850
Couverture, plomberie	- 4,500		

Number of beds, 45.

## VI.



- Plan du Rez de Chaussée -

Surface: 354 mètres.

Sur sous-sol comprenant caves, calorifère, étuve.

Façade principale (côté du perron)	-	30 m.	
Jardin	-	30 m.	sur 10 m.
Salle des lits et Pouponnière, chacune	-	10 m. 60	sur 7 m. 15
Couloir de service	-	17 m.	sur 1 m. 75
Salle d'allaitement	-	3 m. 99	sur 3 m. 85
Parloir	-	3 m. 99	sur 3 m. 29
Cabinet du médecin	-	3 m. 99	sur 2 m. 95
Infirmerie	-	3 m. 99	sur 3 m. 60
Salle des Bains	-	4 m. 10	sur 2 m. 40

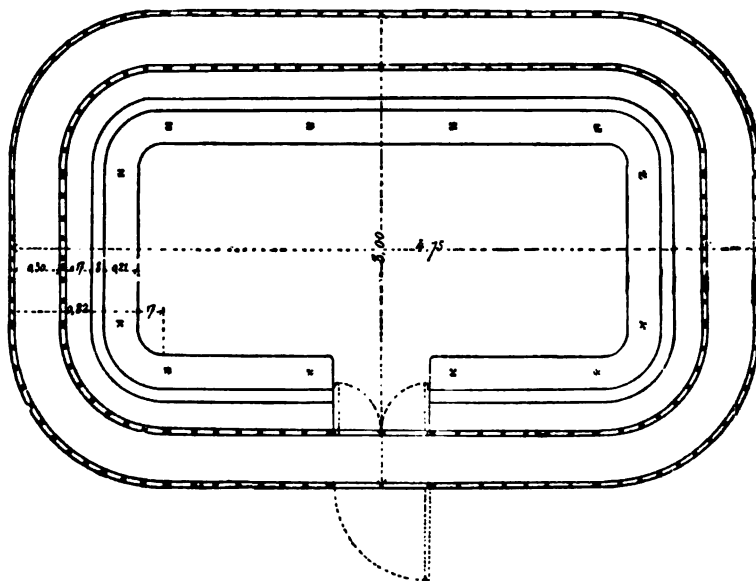
Total, 44.407fr., without site.

Architect, M. REPOSEUR.

	frs.		frs.
Maçonnerie	- - 16,094	Plomberie	- - 2,600
Charpente	- - 7,747	Serrurerie	- - 3,940
Ménisierie	- - 6,744	Calorifère	- - 1,615
Couverture	- - 2,432	Peinture	- - 3,235

Number of beds, 36.

APPENDIX N.



*Plan du Meuble (dit Pouponnière) qui a été fait  
pour la crèche Wunschendorff à Nancy.*





# THE PROVISION MADE IN GERMANY AND SWITZERLAND FOR THE CARE OF CHILDREN UNDER THE COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE.

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# THE PROVISION MADE IN GERMANY AND SWITZERLAND FOR THE CARE OF CHILDREN UNDER THE COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE.

---

## I.—INTRODUCTION.

### A.—GERMANY.

---

#### (i) NATURE AND HISTORY OF THE INSTITUTIONS FOR YOUNG CHILDREN.

The institutions which exist in Germany for the care of children under the compulsory school age are of three kinds, *Krippen* or crèches, *Kleinkinderbewahranstalten* (or *Kleinkinderschulen* or *Warteschulen*), and *Kindergartens*. The *Krippen*, as a rule, form a distinct class by themselves, being concerned only with very young children up to three years of age, though in some cases older children are admitted; but the *Bewahranstalten* and the *Kindergartens* are not always to be distinguished from one another. Both receive children between the ages of two and a half or three and six years. The *Bewahranstalt* exists primarily for social reasons, its object being to afford a refuge for children whose mothers are at work; it is, therefore, open from early morning till evening, and provides the children attending it with a mid-day meal. The primary object of the *Kindergarten*, on the other hand, is education according to Froebel's principles, for which purpose it meets for a couple of hours, morning and afternoon. But in practice no hard and fast line can be drawn between the two classes of institutions. The *Kindergarten* is often also a *Bewahranstalt*, remaining open all day, and providing dinner, while the *Bewahranstalt*, especially when it is run on non-sectarian lines, is frequently a *Kindergarten* in Froebel's sense of the word. In towns where the distinction between the two institutions remains clearly defined, the poorer children naturally attend the *Bewahranstalt*, and the wealthier ones the *Kindergarten*. The tendency to-day, on the whole, is rather to level the distinction between the two classes of institution, though there remains a certain rivalry between them. The confusion between the two classes is shown by the Table given in *Appendix A*, where it has been found impossible to distinguish between *Kindergartens* and *Bewahranstalten*.

#### *The Kinderbewahranstalt.*

Historically, the *Kinderbewahranstalt* is the oldest institution. The first institution of this kind was founded in 1779 by Johann Friedrich Oberlin (1740-1826), the well-known

Protestant pastor, in the village of Waldbach in Alsace. It was opened in connection with a "Knitting School" for older children, also founded by Oberlin, where the children were taught sewing and where stories were told and object lessons given on maps of the district, and coloured pictures of subjects taken from Biblical and natural history. The idea of combining with this school a refuge for small children whose mothers were occupied in the fields is due really to Oberlin's maidservant Louise Scheppler, under whose charge the first *Kinderbewahranstalt* was opened; she carried on the work with single-hearted devotion till her death in 1837. The experiment excited much interest, and in 1802 the Princess Pauline von Lippe-Detmold started a similar institution in Detmold, in which children up to four years of age were received from June till October, when the mothers were at work in the fields. But the chief impetus to the movement in Germany was given by the similar movement for the foundation of infant schools in England in the early years of the 19th century. Robert Owen's experiment at New Lanark in 1800 and the proceedings of the Infant School Society aroused much attention in Germany, and the first twenty years of the century saw the foundation of *Bewahranstalten* in all parts of the country. In every case they were started and maintained by private persons, by religious philanthropic societies both Catholic and Protestant, such as the Oberlin Societies founded in memory of Oberlin himself and to carry on his work, or by various other charitable agencies, especially the many women's Societies (*Frauenvereine*), which play so large a part in German philanthropic life. Many of these institutions have a distinctly religious aim, as was the case with the original one started by Oberlin, and in places where the religious feeling is strong this has led to a certain rivalry between Catholics and Protestants in the founding of such institutions. In Germany, as in this country, it was, however, the change in industrial conditions, and the consequent employment of women away from the home, which first opened the eyes of the benevolent public to the need of making some provision for the children of such women.

#### *The Kindergarten.*

The early history of the Kindergarten is of course connected with the life of Friedrich Froebel (1782-1852), its creator. Froebel, though he was not the first to point out the importance of the early years of a child's life from an educational point of view, for here Comenius and Pestalozzi, at least, had anticipated him, was the first to draw up a system of education through the senses, based on organised play, for children up to six years of age; he was the first also to declare that such education could not be carried out exclusively by the mother.

The history of the development of the Kindergarten in detail has yet to be written, and the materials for it lie buried in the annual reports of many societies. The first institution of the kind was opened by Froebel himself in 1837, at Blankenburg in Thuringen; and three years later he founded

the first training college for Kindergarten teachers. The movement soon spread, some sixteen or eighteen other Kindergartens being opened in Froebel's lifetime. The idea of the Kindergarten, however, was not everywhere kindly received. In 1851 the Prussian Ministry actually forbade Kindergartens to be founded in Prussia, on the ground that Froebel's teaching was socialistic and atheistic. The order was revoked in 1861, and it is supposed that it arose from some confusion of Froebel with a democrat of the same name; but it is the case that the Kindergarten was, and to some extent is, looked upon with suspicion in certain quarters, as wanting in a definite Christian atmosphere.\* In Austria, on the other hand, the Kindergarten found fruitful soil, and by an order of the Ministry of Education in 1872, it was recognised as part of the educational system, under the charge of the local education authorities.

The Kindergarten as Froebel planned it was to supplement and widen home training, and not to be a substitute for it, and therefore applied to children of all classes. In practice, however in Germany, Kindergartens exist chiefly for the poorer children, and the reasons which have led to the founding of them have been rather social than educational; i.e., the primary aim has been to afford shelter for children whose parents are at work. Only in Munich can the Kindergarten be said at present to form part of the system of public elementary education, for the public infant schools that exist in Cologne and Düsseldorf appear to be far more of the nature of *Bewahranstalten*, and are not carried out on Froebel's lines. The development of the Kindergarten on educational grounds seems to belong rather to America† than to Germany. The German Kindergartens were founded by private Societies existing for that purpose, and there are no general statistics to be had as to the total number of Kindergartens and the number of children provided for in this way in Germany as a whole.

*The Krippe or Crèche.*

The idea of the *Krippe* or Crèche came to Germany from France. The first German one was opened in connection with a *Bewahranstalt* at Dresden in 1851; but two years before one had been started at Breitenfeld, near Vienna. *Krippen* now exist in most of the German towns. They are supported by private Societies, generally with help from the Municipal Authorities, and are run on much the same lines as our own day nurseries. (For further particulars as to the Crèche system in Germany and Switzerland, see page 174.)

(ii) ADMINISTRATION AND SUPPORT.

Kindergartens and *Kinderbewahranstalten* in Germany to-day are still maintained, generally speaking, by the various private societies that founded them, and the Kindergarten does not form part of the recognised system of public elementary education.

\* See the articles on *Kleinkinderschulen* in Schmid's *Encyklopädie des gesammten Erziehungs-u. Unterrichtswesens*, 2nd edition, Gotha, 1881.

† See "The Kindergarten," by Laura Fisher (Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1903, vol. i., chapter xvi.), Washington, Government Printing Office, 1905.

Institutions of this kind, however, entirely supported by Municipal Authorities, exist in Cologne and Düsseldorf, where they have been established for many years, in Frankfurt, where there are two and in Munich, where a number of Kindergartens were taken over by the town from a private Society in the beginning of 1907. Municipal grants for such institutions are, however, the rule in almost every town, and a varying amount of Municipal supervision and inspection is exercised in most towns. It is generally the case that permission must be had from the town authorities before a Kindergarten or a *Bewahranstalt* can be established, and in many towns, a register of all institutions for children between the ages of three and six is kept by one of the Town School Inspectors; the extent of the information required, however, and the nature of the inspection carried out appear to depend very much upon the interest taken by the educational officials in the institutions in question. In any case each town has its own policy in regard to the matter. Municipal grants to such institutions appear to be generally on the increase, but there does not seem any likelihood at present of Kindergartens being adopted generally as part of the educational system. Against the example of Munich must be set the fact that in certain North German towns the opinion was definitely expressed that the present policy is to leave the management of these institutions in private hands, and not to increase the number of public ones even where they exist. The reason urged for this is generally the expense that public institutions would involve, but some authorities (at least in Prussia) believe that institutions of this nature thrive better under the freedom of private management. It should be added that most private Societies complain of lack of funds. The management is vested, as a rule, in a committee, and expenses are met by subscriptions and to a certain extent by fees. These last are very small, ranging from about 3d. to 6d. weekly. There are also in most towns a few private fee-paying Kindergartens for the children of well-to-do parents. Kindergartens are, as a rule, unsectarian.

### (iii) STAFF AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

Most *Kinderbewahranstalten* are conducted by Sisters or Deaconesses, belonging to the different religious orders, Catholic or Protestant. These nearly all receive a certain amount of training in the care and management of small children in a Convent or a Deaconesses' Institution (*Mutterhaus*). The Deaconess generally lodges in the *Bewahranstalt*, and a small salary (about £18) is paid yearly to the *Mutterhaus* with which she is connected, and which provides for her in sickness and old age. Some of the newer unsectarian *Kinderbewahranstalten* are, however, under the charge of trained Kindergarten teachers.

All Kindergartens proper are conducted by specially trained teachers (*Kindergärtnerinnen*), and Kindergarten training colleges exist in a large number of German towns.\* They form

\* See *Die deutsche Frau im Beruf (Handbuch der Frauenbewegung)*, Parts iv., p. 347, and v., p. 190, W. Moeser, Berlin, 1902 and 1906 where lists of such institutions, including a few private colleges, are given.

indeed an integral part of Froebel's scheme, which included the training of women for the care and education of small children, and especially for motherhood. These colleges are for the most part under private management, though municipal training courses for Kindergarten teachers are held in some places, e.g., Leipzig and Frankfurt. Generally speaking, two classes of *Kindergärtnerinnen* are provided for in these institutions.

(a) Regular Kindergarten teachers for a Kindergarten proper. Candidates for this course must have attended a Girls' Higher School, and must generally be over sixteen. The course lasts from one to two or two-and-a-half years, and includes, among other subjects, German, the theory and practice of education, natural history, geometry, hygiene, singing, gymnastics, the study of Froebel's occupations, children's games and stories, as well as actual practice in a Kindergarten. The average fee is about £6 a year (without board), though some colleges are dearer, and some, with very short courses, cheaper.

(b) *Kinderpflegerinnen* (Nursery Governesses, or superior nursery maids). This course is open to girls leaving the elementary schools, and lasts from six months to two years. It aims at providing governesses for the home for very young children, or well-trained nurses, and includes, besides further study in elementary school subjects, instruction and practice in the care of children, and in house work. A usual charge is £1.16 (36M.) for the course.

Most institutions undertake to find situations for their students, and for both classes of student there is a large and growing demand. The reports of many training colleges state that they are unable to fill nearly all the situations offered.

#### (iv) SALARIES AND PENSIONS.

The average salary of a Kindergarten teacher of the first class ranges from £35 to £60 yearly (700M. to 1200M.), and of a *Kinderpflegerin* from about £6 to £30 yearly (120M. to 600M.), with board and lodging.\* (Women elementary school teachers in Prussia receive, on an average, an initial salary of from £38 to £54 (760M. to 1080M.), together with an allowance for lodging, which varies from £5 to £15. This salary rises to a maximum of from £84 to £116 (1680M. to 2320M.), inclusive of lodging allowance.†)

In the matter of an old age pension Kindergarten teachers are at a great disadvantage, and for this reason they would welcome a closer connection between the Kindergarten and the public educational system. Their salary is in most cases too small to do more than meet the daily expenses of life, and they can therefore rarely afford to save. It is true that compulsory "old age and invalidity insurance" (*Reichs-Alter- und Invaliditäts-Versicherung*), has been extended to teachers,

\* *Die deutsche Frau im Beruf*, Part iv., p. 331.

† *Die deutsche Frau im Beruf*, Part iv., p. 323.

other than public school teachers, but the pension is small (on an average about £10 (200M.) a year), and only begins after the age of 70, whereas it is stated that Kindergarten teachers find their work exhausting, and lose the vigour and elasticity necessary for it soon after 55. Some Societies have private funds for supplying pensions to their teachers, and there are other agencies which to some extent meet the necessities of the case. The "*Allgemeine deutsche Pensions-Anstalt für Lehrerinnen und Erzieherinnen*," for instance, pays pensions to over 700 female teachers.\* But the supply of retiring allowances generally is very insufficient. Munich, Cologne, and Düsseldorf are apparently the only German cities where the Kindergarten teachers are regularly entitled to a pension.

#### (v) BUILDING AND EQUIPMENT.

The accommodation provided for Kindergartens and *Bewahranstalten* varies very much in different towns, and indeed in the same town. Kindergartens are often accommodated in the elementary schools, where rooms and the use of the playground are placed at their disposal by the education authorities. In Munich the authorities have gone further, and a separate building with a separate playground is attached to many of the schools for the purpose of a Kindergarten. The newest and most admirable Kindergarten buildings are, however, to be found in Frankfurt. In some towns the newer *Bewahranstalten* are also excellently housed in buildings specially erected; otherwise they are to be found very variously lodged, for the most part in private houses adapted to the purpose. In all cases the equipment is simple, consisting of low tables with benches, or, in the newer buildings, of little chairs and round tables, with generally a blackboard and a piano. The usual arrangement is to have two rooms, one large one for games and a smaller one for occupations. A garden is an almost invariable feature of all classes of institutions.

### B.—SWITZERLAND.

#### (1) GERMAN-SPEAKING SWITZERLAND.†

The same three classes of institutions for young children exist in German-speaking Switzerland as in Germany, and here also the history and development of these institutions have been different in different places. In Switzerland, however, the Kindergarten is more a recognised feature of elementary education than in Germany, inasmuch as the larger Swiss towns have a system of free public Kindergartens for children between four and six, though attendance at these is not compulsory. They are accommodated as a rule in the schools. In these towns, more-

\* *Die deutsche Frau im Beruf*, Part iv., p. 332.

† Much of the following information is taken from the pamphlet by C. Auer, *Hebung der Kleinkinderanstalten: Ein weiterer Beitrag zur Totalrevision der Glarnerischen Schulgesetzgebung*; 1907.



over, private institutions of this kind are being more and more transferred to the public authorities. In the smaller towns and villages, however, the institutions which receive young children are more of the nature of *Bewahranstalten*, and are housed and conducted in various ways. Generally they seem to be supported by private societies, with assistance from the local authorities, but in some cases they are entirely under the charge of the latter.

In Switzerland, as in Germany, the materials for the history of these institutions is scanty and scattered.

Basle, which has to-day the most elaborately organised system of *Kindervanstalten* generally, appears to have been one of the first towns to open such institutions. In the famine year of 1817 charitable Women's Societies in that town started infant schools for children whose parents were unable to look after them. In 1843 the *Gemeinnützige Gesellschaft* took up and supported institutions of this kind, and in 1875 a Society for founding Kindergartens was established. The first public Kindergartens in Basle were opened in 1895, and in the nine years from 1898 to 1907 the public Kindergartens had increased by 72, while the private institutions had decreased by 24. In Zurich the first private Kindergarten was opened in 1872; in 1895 existing Kindergartens were taken over by the town, and their number was speedily increased. In 1893, for instance, there were 7 Kindergartens with 290 children; in 1899, 27 with 1026 children; and to-day 51 with 1000-1600 children. The private institutions which still exist are rather *Bewahranstalten* than Kindergartens. Training courses for Kindergarten teachers are held in the Girls' Higher Schools in Basle and Zurich. A Swiss Kindergarten Society, founded in 1881, does useful work by holding yearly meetings, at which subjects bearing on the work of the Kindergarten are discussed. It has at the present time some 400 members.

## (2) FRENCH-SPEAKING SWITZERLAND.

In French Switzerland the Infant Schools (*Ecoles enfantines*) generally speaking form a recognised part of public elementary education. An account of the regulations on the subject for the Canton of Geneva may be given as an example, though all French Cantons may not be so advanced. In Vaud, Neuchâtel and Fribourg the organisation appears to be much on the same lines as in Geneva; in Valais the Froebel system is not employed.

Article 25 of the *Lois sur L'Instruction Publique* (1896) of the Republic and Canton of Geneva recognises the *écoles enfantines* as the lowest stage of primary education. The following extracts give the regulations for such schools.

"Article 26: The infant schools are organised in such a manner as to forward the bodily and intellectual development of the child, and to serve as a preparation for the primary school. They comprise:—

"A lower division for children from three to six years of age, and an upper division for children from six to seven.

"Article 27. In both divisions the instruction consists chiefly of object lessons, manual occupations, games, songs and moral talks."

Attendance at these schools, which are for both sexes, is free, but not compulsory before the age of six. Further regulations are laid down in the *Règlement des Ecoles Infantines*. There it is stated among other things that the instruction given is regulated according to a plan of lessons drawn up by the Department, to which the mistresses are bound to conform. The duty of these mistresses is "to work at the physical, intellectual, and moral education of the children committed to their charge. They ought to take care to inculcate good principles into them, to teach them good habits, proper manners and correct speech. They are bound to prepare their lessons in such a way that their teaching may be easily understood, attractive, and well within the comprehension of their pupils. They must carefully abstain from anything of a sectarian nature." They are also instructed to see that the children come to school clean, tidy and in good health. (*See Appendix D (4) and Appendix E.*)

Mistresses for the infant schools are appointed for Geneva by the *Conseil Administratif*, and for the other communes by the *Conseil Municipal*. The salary of a mistress begins at 800 francs, with an annual increment of 25 francs for ten years; an assistant mistress gets 600 francs. There is an Insurance Fund for the mistresses of infant schools, to which each mistress must subscribe; the annual subscription must not be less than 40 francs. The State pays in annually 50 francs for each member not already pensioned.

The infant schools are also under the general charge of an inspectress, who receives an annual salary of 2,300 francs. Her duties are to supervise the instruction given, and see that it conforms to the regulations, to instruct teachers in training and those newly appointed, to look after the hygienic conditions of the school buildings and to distribute school material.

It will be seen that the aim and the methods of the *écoles enfantines* are in many respects different from those of the *Kindergartens* in German Switzerland. In the *écoles enfantines* the time-table is much more strictly regulated, and the work directly prepares for the work of the primary school. The ideal of educational reformers in German Switzerland is in some ways altogether opposed to the French system. What they aim at is the establishment everywhere of free public *Kindergartens* where children shall be trained generally on Froebel's lines, but without any definite formal instruction; these institutions are to be altogether separate from the schools, if possible in a separate building, and are only to prepare for school work indirectly in the widest sense, by the general training given to the child's faculties.

## II.—ACCOUNT OF THE KINDERGARTENS AND KINDERBEWAHRANSTALTEN IN THE TOWNS VISITED.\*

### (1) BERLIN.\*

There are no institutions for children under school age directly maintained by the Municipality in Berlin, but the city supervises and aids private institutions. Certain difficulties in regard to the development of the elementary school system in Berlin, and also in the matter of continuation schools, have prevented the authorities from as yet paying so much attention as elsewhere to the question of the care of children under school age. A committee has, however, been appointed to bring the Kindergarten into closer connection with the public school system, and matters will be improved in four or five years.

In 1907 the Municipality contributed £300 (6,000 marks) to the Berlin *Froebel-Verein*, in aid of its *Volkskindergärten*; £425 (8,500 marks) to the *Verein für Volkskindergärten*, and £250 (5,000 marks) to the *Verein zur Beförderung der Kleinkinderbewahranstalten*.

#### (a) KINDERGARTENS.

There are some 16 or 17 Kindergartens in Berlin supported by private Societies, including one for children defective in speech and hearing, besides 18 private Kindergartens. The chief societies supporting Kindergartens are:—

(1) *Berliner Verein für Volkserziehung (Pestalozzi-Froebelhaus)* founded 1873, supporting four Kindergartens with 350 children.

(2) *Berliner Froebel-Verein*, founded 1859, supporting six Kindergartens (three for rich and three for poor children) with 340 children.

(3) *Verein für Volkskindergärten* in Berlin, founded 1863, supporting six Kindergartens. The number of children in attendance in 1905, when there were only five institutions, was 284.

#### *Fees.*

The fees in the above institutions seem to range from 15pf. to 1 mark monthly (excepting, of course, in the Kindergartens for the rich), with reductions and free places; dinner where provided is charged for at the rate of 1d. a day. In the majority of cases the Kindergartens seem to remain open all day till as late as 7 p.m. The holidays are the same as the school holidays, except that in the summer many of the Kindergartens have either shorter holidays or do not close. The salary of a head teacher is from £4 to £5 monthly; of an assistant £2 15s. monthly.

\* The towns marked with an asterisk were visited by His Majesty's Inspector, Mr. Darlington. To the Board's regret his illness and death prevented his writing a report on the work done in these towns, but the accounts given are taken from his notes and from material collected by him.

*Training Courses for Kindergarten Teachers.*

These are held in Berlin by:—

(1) The *Berliner Verein für Volkserziehung* (*Pestalozzi-Froebelhaus I.*). This is a well-known training college for Kindergarten teachers, housed in a large and imposing building. The course for Kindergarten teachers lasts from one to two years. The candidate must be 16 years of age, and have attended a Girls Higher School. The fee for Germans is £2 10s. (50M.) quarterly, and for foreigners £3 17s. 6d. (77M. 50) quarterly. There is also a course for training *Kinderpflegerinnen*, lasting from one to two years, to which girls from the elementary schools over 14 are admitted. In 1906 there were 184 students in the first course and 30 in the second. There is a boarding-house (*Viktoria-Heim*) in connection with the college, where students can be lodged and boarded at the rate of £18 (360M.) a session. (For further particulars, see Appendix F (1).)

(2) The *Berliner Froebel-Verein*. This Society also trains *Kindergärtnerinnen* and *Kinderpflegerinnen*. The first course lasts a year and costs £1 17s. 6d. (37M. 50) quarterly, with an entrance fee of 5s., which goes to form a fund for free places for poor students. The second course (school for nursery maids) also lasts a year and costs 3s. a month, with an additional 6s. a year for material, and 1s. entrance fee. In this course during the first six months the mornings are spent in a Kindergarten, and during the second six months in a family where the student takes part in the domestic work of the house and the care of the children under the guidance of the mistress. In the afternoons from three o'clock instruction is given in German, Arithmetic, Froebel's occupations, education, nature-knowledge, sewing, &c. Thirty-nine girls attended this course in 1906 (see Appendix F (2)).

Other training institutions are the *Froebelsche Kindergärtnerinnen - Bildungsanstalt der Hamburger Vorstadt* (six months' course) and the *Berliner Froebel-Schule* (three to four months' course). The *Oberlin-Seminar* trains Protestant (*evangelisch*) infant teachers, in from one to one and a-half years, at a cost of £4 10s. (90M.) yearly, with another £1 for books. Students are not bound to follow a deaconess's calling.

(b) *KLEINKINDERBEWAHRANSTALTEN.*

In 1905 there were in Berlin 19 *Kleinkinderbewahranstalten* under the *Verein zur Beförderung der Kleinkinderbewahranstalten* (2179 children); 5 under the *Gossner Verein* (327 children); 14 private institutions (1992 children); and 19 which seem to be religious in character (811 children). The total number of children provided for in this way was thus 5309. The distinction between these institutions and the Kindergartens rests not in the matter of hours, which seem

to be often the same, but in the fact that Froebel's method are more used in the one than in the other. There appears however, to be much confusion in the classification of the two kinds of institutions.

## (2) BRESLAU.\*

### (a) KINDERGARTENS.

There are 11 Kindergartens in Breslau under the *Kindergarten-Verein*, founded in 1861. One of these is for children who are backward in speaking. It meets in the afternoons four times a week from 3 to 5. In the other Kindergartens children are received between the ages of 3 and 6, and pay a monthly fee of 2s., with an entrance fee of 1s. and an additional charge of 3d. monthly for material, and of 1s. 6d. in October and January for fuel (*Heizgeld*). There are a certain number of free places, and the usual reductions are made for brothers and sisters. All these Kindergartens are open in the morning only, from 8 to 12, or from 9 to 12.30 according to the season, and they are all under the supervision of an inspectress appointed by the Society. In 1906 the Verein received £125 from the town.

#### *Training Course for Kindergarten Teachers.*

The *Kindergarten-Verein* also conducts training courses for *Kindergärtnerinnen* and *Kinderpflegerinnen*. The former course was attended in 1906-7 by 53 girls. It lasts a year or a year and a-half, and costs £6 yearly. The latter course lasts from 6 months to a year, and costs £1 each half-year. It was attended in 1896-7 by 65 girls.

The *Frauenbildungsverein zur Förderung der Erwerbsfähigkeit* also trains *Kindergärtnerinnen* and *Kinderpflegerinnen*.

### (b) KLEINKINDERBEWAHRANSTALTEN.

The Breslau Directory for 1907 gives a list of some 30 *Bewahranstalten*. Of these 13 are Catholic and one unsectarian; the rest appear to be Protestant. The usual charge is 6d. a month, with free places, and in some cases free soup at mid-day. The Catholic institutions are poorer than the Protestant, owing to the constant flow of poor Catholics from Poland.

## (3) COLOGNE.

### (1) MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.

Public Kindergartens directly maintained by the Municipal Authorities have been in existence in Cologne for some thirty years. They are generally accommodated in a school, where two rooms are set apart for them. There are nine such Kindergartens at present in Cologne, attended in 1905 by 561 children. The fees charged are 6d. weekly (50 pf.), but there are a few free places. Except in two Kindergartens no meals are given.

The exceptions are situated in the neighbourhood of factories where women are employed, and in these cases dinner, and milk and bread in the afternoon are supplied at a charge of 1d. (10 pf.) a week. The hours are from 8 to 12 and from 2 to 4, and the age of admission from  $2\frac{1}{2}$  to 3 years. About sixty children are allowed for one teacher and one assistant. Salaries for teachers begin at £45 (900 M.) yearly, and rise to £75 (1500 M.); assistants receive £36 (720 M.). A pension of half the salary is allowed after 10 years' service with an annual increase of £1.

The total expenditure by the Municipality on the nine schools in 1905 was £993 (19,866 M.). The amount received in school fees was £288 (5754 M.), an average of about 10s. per child per year. The total cost per child per year was 35s.; the actual cost to the city (deducting money received from fees) was £705 (14112 M.) or roughly 25s. per child per year.

A course of training for Kindergarten teachers is held in connection with the Municipal Kindergartens.

## (2) PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS.

There are a large number of private Kindergartens and *Kinderbewahranstalten* in Cologne, under different committees. A list of charitable institutions in this city, published privately in 1905, gives in all 35 institutions for the care of children between the ages of  $2\frac{1}{2}$  and 6. Of these 18 are Catholic, eight Protestant, two Jewish, and seven non-sectarian. Unfortunately no figures are given as to the total number of children accommodated, and no statistics on this point seem to be published by the Municipal Authorities. Generally speaking, these institutions appear to be more of the *Bewahranstalt* type than Kindergartens proper. They are mostly under the charge of sisters, either Catholic or Protestant, and Froebel's methods are not followed to any great extent.

## (4) DRESDEN.\*

There are no Municipal institutions in Dresden for children under school age, nor does any Municipal supervision seem to be exercised over the private institutions, though some of these receive Municipal grants. The supply of such institutions is said to be very inadequate to the demand, which is increasing with the growth of industries, and some of the authorities hold that it is the moral (even the legal) duty of the town to supplement the number of existing institutions. This, however, the town authorities generally are most unwilling to do, on account of the expense. According to the *Haushaltsplan der Stadt Dresden* the amount contributed by the city in 1907 to Societies for the purpose of Kindergartens or *Bewahranstalten* was £730 (14,600 M.).

## (A) KINDERGARTENS.

There are some 11 Kindergartens in Dresden supported by Societies. Eight of these are maintained by the *Allgemeiner Erziehungsverein*, and are attended by about 800 children. The fees charged range from 1.50 M. to 2.25 M. a month. The hours are from 9.0 to 12.0, and in some cases also from 2.0 to 4.0. Teachers must have been trained in a Froebel college, and begin generally with a salary of £40 (800 M.) a year, rising to £70 (1400 M.). In other Kindergartens, where free lodging and sometimes board are given in addition to the salary, the latter ranges from £15 (300 M.) to £24 (480 M.).

There are also eight private Kindergartens with from 10 to 34 children in each, and fees ranging from 3s. to 5s. monthly.

*Training Course for Kindergarten Teachers.*

Courses of training for *Kindergärtnerinnen* and *Kinderpflegerinnen* are conducted in the *Froebelstiftung*, under the *Allgemeiner Erziehungsverein*. In each case the course lasts a year, and the examination at the end is conducted by a Government representative, generally one of the District School Inspectors. The fees for tuition are respectively £5 and £1 4s. (100 M. and 24 M.) yearly, with as much again for material. There is a hostel for students where board and lodging can be had for £27 (536 M.) yearly.

## (B) KLEINKINDERBEWAHRANSTALTEN.

In 1901 there were altogether 8 *Bewahranstalten* in Dresden the majority of them being supported by the *Frauenverein*. The number of children in attendance at each institution varied from 60 to 100, and the fee charged is 1d. daily. The person in charge is generally a Deaconess, called the fostermother (*Pflegemutter*), and in some cases she is assisted by a Kindergarten teacher. The usual salary for the Deaconess is £18 (360 M.) with free lodging, and £5 at Christmas; for the *Kindergärtnerin* from £11 (216 M.) to £12 (240 M.) also with free lodging and £2 10s. (50 M.) at Christmas. These institutions are open all day from about 7 a.m. to 7 p.m.

## (5) DÜSSELDORF.

In Düsseldorf all institutions for children between the ages of three and six have been for over 20 years under Municipal supervision. A register is kept, and each institution is inspected from time to time; new institutions can only be established with the permission of the School authorities. Besides aiding and supervising the 21 existing private institutions the city provides eight Municipal Kindergartens. It is not likely, however, that this number will be increased, or that the policy of direct Municipal management will be extended to private institutions. Rather the tendency in Düsseldorf at present is towards leaving

the management of all *Kleinkinderanstalten* in private hands, possibly with increased grants. It is found inconvenient to house the Kindergartens in the ordinary schools, where they are apt to be crowded out, and where their use of the playground at the hours when the other classes are at work leads to complaints as to noise, and the authorities feel that the supervision of institutions of this kind is very suitably left in the hands of the various charitable societies.

#### *Instruction.*

The rules laid down for the regulation of infant schools in Düsseldorf expressly forbid any definite school instruction. "The children are to be occupied with playing, singing, exercises in the powers of observation and speech (*Anschauungs- und Sprechübungen*), story-telling, and the like." No children are to be admitted who have not completed their third year. The hours are from eight to twelve and two to four with half-holidays on Wednesdays and Saturdays, and the usual school holidays.

#### *Training of Teachers.*

No definite rules are given as to the training of teachers for these institutions, and no course of Kindergarten training is carried out in Düsseldorf. Teachers begin as assistants, and thus pick up a certain amount of training in the course of time. But in neither public nor private institutions is a Kindergarten system on Froebel's lines carried out to any great extent.

#### *Salaries.*

The salary of a head-teacher is £23 (470 M.) yearly, and of an assistant £15 (300 M.) In addition the teachers in the Municipal Schools are allowed to take fees from the children to the extent of 6d. per child per month. No fees are taken directly by the Municipal Authorities. Pensions are given up to three-fourths of the salary received.

#### *Numbers and Cost.*

There are altogether in Düsseldorf 27 institutions for children between three and six, accommodating 4754 children, and attended in 1906 by 3752 children. Eight of these institutions are entirely Municipal. For the total number of institutions there were 35 teachers, and 27 assistants. The total outlay by the Municipality on all institutions was £734 (14,675 M.), but this sum does not include the cost of the upkeep, heating, cleaning, &c., of the premises in which the Municipal Kindergartens are housed, which is estimated with the expenses of the ordinary schools.

None of the institutions visited either in Cologne or in Düsseldorf, calls for particular description, and it seems to be the case that in both of these towns the organisation is better on paper than in fact. In both places large numbers of children are found under one teacher. Thus in Düsseldorf, though the



numbers given in the Municipal Statistics work out at about 60 children to each teacher (including assistants), yet out of the three institutions that I visited two had classes of 80 under one teacher. It is partly a result of these large numbers that so little has been attempted in the way of definite Kindergarten work.

(6) FRANKFURT-ON-MAIN.

The institutions in Frankfurt for the care of children under the compulsory school age are very well organised, and have some interesting features not to be found elsewhere. Since 1898 all institutions for children between the ages of three and six have been under careful Municipal supervision and they all receive yearly grants, though only two of them are entirely supported by the Municipality. One of the City School Inspectors keeps a register of all such institutions, in which particulars are entered in each case as to the number of rooms and the accommodation, the training of the person in charge, the name of the doctor in attendance, and whether there is a garden attached. Each institution is occasionally visited by this inspector. It is possible, perhaps probable, that in time all these institutions may be taken over altogether by the Municipality, though at present the expense is a deterrent factor. On the other hand some at least of the school authorities are doubtful whether it would be a good thing to have institutions of this kind directly controlled by a public body, as a certain amount of restriction as to time-tables and management would be the necessary consequence of such a step. In the case of very small children it is desirable that a good deal of freedom in the handling of them should be allowed to those in charge, and this, it is thought, may be better obtained by leaving the institutions under private management with Municipal supervision as at present.

There are altogether 30 institutions in Frankfurt for children between the age of three and six, attended by some 3,000 children. The total sum spent on such institutions by the City amounted in 1907 to £791 (15,830 M.), but this year it will be about £1,416 (28,330 M.), as the grants to one Society are to be largely increased. Certain regulations hold good for all institutions alike. One teacher is allowed for every 40 children, and salaries range from £4 to £6 monthly (80 to 120 M.) In many cases the Head Mistress lives on the premises and receives free lodging as well as her salary. In addition to the teacher or teachers, each institution has a maid servant, who acts in some degree as nurse to the children and who receives a monthly wage of £1 5s. (25 M.) All institutions are medically inspected, the doctor's services in each case being given free. There is no regulation time-table, each teacher being allowed to draw up her own, and to regulate the length of each occupation as seems best. Occupations generally, however,

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are carried out on Froebel's lines. In most schools a particular subject is taken each month, according to the season of the year, and talks, stories, &c., are grouped round this.

### (1) MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.

The two Kindergartens directly controlled by the Municipality of Frankfurt are, so to speak, accidental in origin. They are situated in outlying villages which a few years ago were taken into the Municipal area. At the time of their incorporation these villages possessed public Kindergartens, and the City of Frankfurt was, therefore, bound to continue such institutions in these particular instances.

#### *Number of Children in attendance,*

About 200 children with five teachers are accommodated in these two Kindergartens, which, in the words of the regulations, offer children of from three to six years of age "shelter and occupation suited to their years, in cases where the parents are not able themselves to look after their children." In the form to be filled in by an applicant for admission to one of these Kindergartens, information has to be given as to the whereabouts of the mother at mid-day.

#### *Hours.*

The Kindergartens are open in Summer from 7 a.m. and in Winter from 8 or 8.30 a.m. to 5 p.m. Saturday is a half-holiday, and the other holidays are the same as in the elementary schools. Admission is free.

#### *School Dinners.*

Children whose parents are not at home in the middle of the day can receive dinner, but the Municipality has nothing to do with the arrangements for this meal, beyond providing the kitchen and cooking utensils. A woman undertakes to cook and supply a dinner at 7d. a head weekly (70 pf.), and makes what she can out of it. She is supervised by the Head Mistress, who lives on the premises.

A detailed description of one of these Kindergartens will be found below (p. 156).

### (2) PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS.

As in other places private institutions in Frankfurt are supported by numerous committees. There are, for example, some thirteen committees each supporting one institution. It would be unnecessary to give a detailed account of the institutions in each case, but there is one Society supporting a large number of schools of which the working may be more fully described.

#### *Society for People's Kindergartens.*

This is the Society for People's Kindergartens (*Verein für Volkskindergärten*), founded in 1896, which maintains five Kindergartens, accommodating altogether 500 children, under the

charge of Kindergarten teachers trained on the Froebel system. These Kindergartens are intended primarily for children whose parents are at work, and, therefore unable to look after them, and they are open in Summer from 8 to 12 a.m. and from 2 to 5 p.m., and in Winter from 9 to 12 a.m. and from 2 to 5 p.m. The fee charged varies from 7½d. (75 pf.) to 3s. a month, according to the circumstances of the individual families. A further charge of ½d. a day is made for milk, which is given at 10 a.m. and at 4 p.m., the children bringing rolls with them, and, if necessary, dinner can be had for another ½d. daily. In some instances these Kindergartens are accommodated in very excellent houses built on purpose; a description of one of these will be found on p. 157 below. A doctor gives his services in connection with each Kindergarten, and there is also a large number of voluntary helpers, who assist the teachers.

*Training Course for Nursery Maids.*

An interesting and practical feature in the Kindergartens under this Society is that they are used also for training as nursery maids girls who have just left the elementary schools (see *Appendix F* (3)). These girls are received free of charge, but must follow the course of training for a year. They help in the work of the Kindergarten, and thus gain experience in the management and care of small children. Girls trained in this way can be sure of good situations on leaving.

*Cost.*

The cost of maintaining these five Kindergartens cannot be exactly estimated, as two institutions of another kind are included in the yearly statement of expenses. The sum received in school fees in 1906 was £178 (3,565 M.) and for food £338 (6,757 M.). The average attendance at the five schools for 1906 was 449.

TRAINING COURSE FOR KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS.

A course of training for Kindergarten teachers, on the Pestalozzi-Froebel method is carried on by the *Frauenbildungs-Verein* in Frankfurt. The course lasts from 1½ to 2 years, according to whether the student is training as a private *Kindergärtnerin* in a family or as a teacher in a Kindergarten School. The fee is £7 10s. yearly (150 M.). The course of instruction is similar to that in institutions elsewhere. There is a practising Kindergarten in connection with the training College.

This year (1908) the Municipality of Frankfurt hopes to open a large Training College for Women Teachers, which is being built at a cost of £35,000 (700,000 M.). This will include a Kindergarten Course and a practising Kindergarten School. The latter will be visited by all teachers in training, and not by Kindergarten teachers only, as it is considered desirable that all teachers should have experience of children of as young an age as possible.

## THREE FRANKFURT KINDERGARTENS.

The Kindergarten system of Frankfurt has been largely developed lately in the way of providing new buildings, and some of the institutions in this city are housed in a way that represents the very latest and best developments in institutions of this kind in Germany, or indeed anywhere. Three schools were visited, for instance, which had all been opened within the last six months, and which were admirably equipped. The sanitary arrangements in particular, in contrast to those found in certain institutions elsewhere, were excellent in every case. The offices were fitted with small "baby" closets, well flushed on the separate cistern plan, and the lavatories were supplied with hot and cold water. All these new buildings had central heating apparatus. The following notes were taken of the visits paid to these particular schools:—

*(a) Municipal Kindergarten at Oberrad.*

This is in a new building erected at a cost of about £3,000 or £3,500 (60,000 to 70,000 M.), and opened at Easter, 1907. The house is detached and of three storeys, standing behind a large elementary school, on high ground, overlooking a wide stretch of wood and field. It accommodates 120 children, with three teachers. The head teacher lives on the premises. On the first floor there is a large light playroom and a good classroom, with the offices and bathrooms and lavatory. In the play and classrooms the walls are colour-washed, with a dado of stained and varnished wood, in one room green and in the other red. Doors and window-frames match in each case. The furniture in the playroom consists of little round tables with small chairs; in the classroom of low tables and benches, and a black board. In the lavatories, etc., the floors are paved with red and white tiles, and the walls have a dado of glazed white tiles. There are eight wash-hand basins, six water-closets, and two small zinc baths. Pegs for hats and cloaks are in the hall.

On the second floor are two more classrooms, and offices similar to those below, but no lavatory or bathrooms. On this floor there is also an excellently fitted-up kitchen. Above again are the living rooms of the head mistress. The smaller children are put to sleep from 12.30 to 2.30, and instead of beds sloping wooden frames are used covered with brown canvas.

The garden is gravelled, and planted with trees. It contains the usual sand-pits and play-shed, with flower-beds in one corner. A low wooden fence divides it from the playground of the school behind, and in one place this fence was covered with a large pumpkin, the growth of which had been watched with interest by the children, from the planting of the seeds to the swelling of the great yellow fruit.

On the bright October day on which the school was visited doors and windows were wide open, and sun and air streamed in everywhere. The children were playing outside.

*(b) Kindergarten under the Verein für Volkskindergärten.*

This school occupies the ground flat in a tenement forming one of a colony of model Workmen's Dwellings. The dwellings in this case are built in horse-shoe shape round a court. The school accommodates 110 children, and is planned in the form of a long corridor with rooms on each side. On the one side there are three small class-rooms opening into one another by folding partitions, and on the other the play-room and a covered glass verandah. Here also the walls are colour-washed in a light tint to harmonise with the dado of stained red, green, or blue wood, and the furniture consists either of long tables with benches, or of round tables with chairs. In one of the class-rooms at the time of the visit tables were laid for dinner. The preparation consisted simply of putting three tables together and tying over them white wax cloth covers. At each place there was a white wooden square and a spoon. In this school also sloping canvas-covered wooden frames (roughly  $4\frac{1}{2}$  ft. by  $2\frac{1}{2}$  ft.) are used for the mid-day sleep. They are kept in a cellar below one of the rooms, and handed up through a trap-door when required. There are two baths, in which the children are bathed two or three times a week, and there is also a garden, laid out in the usual way.

*(c) Jewish Kindergarten.*

This Kindergarten, founded in 1800, has just moved into a very fine new building called after the donors, the "Moritz und Johanna Oppenheimerscher Kindergarten für Israeliten." The building is beautifully and most expensively fitted up, but is hardly typical of what it is possible to do in ordinary circumstances. The house is detached, and accommodates 70 children, and the total cost of ground and building was £10,000 (200,000 M.) All the rooms for the children, viz., two class-rooms, a play-room, a cloak-room, offices and lavatory, are on the ground floor. The play-room is exceptionally large and lofty, with a gay painted frieze representing the Four Seasons, and seats on a raised gallery at one end, so that the children can be gathered together there for any particular display. Out of the play-room there opens a sunny covered glass verandah. Here the children take their mid-day sleep, on small canvas deck-chairs with folding foot-rests. Each chair is numbered, and each child has his own. The verandah leads by three steps into the garden. The lavatory is all white, with porcelain baths and hand-basins. The offices open off it, and there are also smaller offices on the basement floor, entered from the garden. The floors in lobby and class-rooms are covered with plain dark-red linoleum. The second storey contains a large and admirable kitchen (whence the food is sent down by a lift), the head teacher's rooms, and the Committee rooms. There is also on this floor an isolation room for use in any case of illness. The wood-work and walls of this room are white. It contains a basin with hot and cold water, an invalid couch and a medicine cupboard. The

whole building is fitted with electric light. The children in this school are very poor, many of them being the children of Jewish immigrants. The fees are 2½d. weekly (25 pf.), which includes dinner, and milk and rolls in the afternoon. Overalls of dark-blue print and bibs for meals are supplied clean every day. Baths are given twice weekly. All children are made to gargle after the mid-day meal. A doctor is in attendance, and the children are weighed and measured every month. The School receives many gifts of shoes and clothing.

## (7) LEIPZIG.

There is no direct Municipal supervision in Leipzig of institutions for the care of children under school age, though in many cases these institutions receive grants and sometimes the use of rooms in a school, from the Municipal Authorities. As no register appears to be kept of the different institutions, general figures for the whole subject are not to be had other than those given in the Table in Appendix A.

The institutions for children between the ages of three and six fall, generally speaking, into two classes:—(a) *Kindergartens*. (b) *Kinderbewahranstalten*.

## (a) KINDERGARTENS.

Kindergartens are provided in Leipzig by the following Societies:—*Verein für Volkskindergärten*, *Leipziger Froebel-Verein*, *Pestalozzi-Froebel-Verein*, *Verein für Familien- und Volkserziehung*. The largest number is under the *Verein für Volkskindergärten*, whose object is to provide Kindergartens for the children of poor parents. It has at present six Kindergartens under its charge, attended in 1906 by some 394 children, the highest average daily attendance being 65. The report of the Society for 1906 states that in several cases the Kindergartens were overfilled, and about 300 children had to be refused admission. In consequence of this demand a seventh Kindergarten has been started by the Society. In several cases the Society is granted the use of a room or rooms in a *Bezirks* or a *Bürger* School; in other cases suitable localities are rented. The fee charged is 6d. (50 pf.) weekly, with an additional 1d. weekly for material. Teachers' salaries range from 50 M. to 75 M. monthly (£30 to £45 yearly). The children do not receive meals, but go home in the middle of the day. The cost of the maintenance of the six Kindergartens in 1906 was, roughly, £335 (6,707 M.); the sum contributed by the payments of the children amounted to £147 (2,945 M.)

The three other societies support altogether five Kindergartens, which serve also as practising schools for the course of training for Kindergarten teachers, conducted respectively by each society. These kindergartens are all run on much the same lines, and need not be described separately. The number of children in each school ranges from about 30 to 75. Fees vary according to the locality and the class of children. They run from 6d. to 3s. a month, and free places are provided in the institutions visited by poorer children. The children are admitted between the ages

of 2½ or 3 and 6 years. The hours are from 8.30 or 9 to 12, and from 2 to 4. Wednesday and Saturday afternoons are free, and the holidays are the same as in the Elementary schools. Salaries range from £30 to £45 yearly. In the regulations for the schools for the poorer children it is generally stated that "children must come punctually and regularly, cleanly clad, and provided with a pocket and a clean pocket-handkerchief. Parents must provide for the bringing and fetching of the children."

The Municipality gives grants to the different Kindergarten societies, ranging from £15 (300 M.) to £60 (1,200 M.) yearly.

*Municipal Kindergarten.*

A small Kindergarten attended by 30 children is maintained by the Municipal Authorities as a practising school for Kindergarten teachers in training in connection with the Municipal School for Women's Occupations (*Städtische Schule für Frauenberufe*). This Kindergarten is accommodated in a room on the ground floor of the school, and has the occasional use of the gymnasium. It meets only in the morning, in winter from 10 to 12, and in summer from 9 to 12. The children pay 2½d. (25 pf.) monthly.

*Training Courses for Kindergarten Teachers.*

(1) *Municipal.*

A *Kindergärtnerinnen-Seminar* is conducted in connection with the Municipal School for Women's Occupations. Kindergarten teachers of Class I. (kindergarten teachers for the family, and for public Kindergartens) have a three years' course, while the training for those of Class II. (children's nurses and nursery governesses) lasts for two years. The yearly fee is £2 8s. (48 M.). Besides the practising school in the building, the Kindergartens of the *Verein für Volkskindergärten* are open to the students in training.

(2) *Private.*

Each of the following Societies has a training course for Kindergarten teachers, viz.:—The *Leipziger Froebel-Verein*, the *Pestalozzi-Froebel-Verein*, and the *Verein für Familien- und Volkserziehung*. Kindergarten teachers of both classes are trained in these courses, and in two of the colleges there is an additional course for those who wish to become teachers in a Kindergarten college. The course of study is much the same as in the *Municipal Kindergärtnerinnen-Seminar*. The courses last from 1½ to 2½ years, and the cost of training ranges from £5 to £11 yearly. The conditions of admission are that the candidate shall have passed through the highest class of a *Bürgerschule*, and have obtained a satisfactory leaving certificate.

(b) *KINDERBEWAHRANSTALTEN.*

There are some 24 *Kleinkinderbewahranstalten* in Leipzig, supported by many different committees. In a large number of cases these institutions are parochial, but as each society is

worked independently it is not possible to give general statistics. The persons in charge are either Sisters of different religious orders or Kindergarten teachers. The hours are from 6 or 7 a.m. to 6 p.m. in summer and from 7 or 8 a.m. to 6 p.m. in winter. The children pay 5d. or 6d. weekly and receive a mid-day dinner and milk or coffee and bread in the afternoon. They bring their breakfast with them. They are not admitted under 2½ or 3 years, nor, generally, after school age, though in one such institution at least a sort of *Kindergarten* is combined with the *Bewahranstalt*, and the older children come after school hours. Every institution possesses a garden, where the children spend most of the fine weather. The day is occupied with games and occupations on more or less Kindergarten lines, according to the tastes and training of the person in charge. A two hours' sleep after dinner is generally insisted upon; the elder children rest their arms on the table and their heads on their arms, while small wooden beds are provided for the younger ones. In many cases a doctor gives his services when required.

With one or two exceptions, the institutions visited in Leipzig, whether Kindergartens or *Bewahranstalten* were not remarkable, and do not call for detailed description. The accommodation varied in different institutions; but, as a rule, it was not free from the drawbacks almost inseparable in any alteration of a private house for other purposes. In every case, however, the garden was a pleasant feature, and there on a fine day the children were generally to be found. In one Kindergarten, for instance, visited in the afternoon, the children were sitting in three groups—about ten in each—round low tables under the trees. One group was modelling with clay, another was stringing beads into necklaces, while the third set was sticking slips of coloured paper together to form stars. This last occupation proved rather a difficult task for the small fingers, for the paper (bookbinders' waste to be had for the asking) was glazed and slippery and would not stick. The very youngest children were tumbling about happily by themselves on a heap of sand and gravel. Where the Kindergartens are held in the schools the children have to share the common playground, and are not able to be so much out of doors. Time-tables were little in evidence, and did not seem to be very strictly adhered to—at all events, in fine weather.

One admirably housed *Kinderbewahranstalt*, however, in a suburb of Leipzig, is worthy of a more detailed description. It is established in connection with a set of Model Workmen's houses built by a "Society for the Erection of Cheap Dwellings" (*Stiftung für Erbauung billiger Wohnungen*). The houses in question, which accommodate 344 families, are built in rectangular form, round about five acres of open ground, and the *Kinderbewahranstalt* forms one end of the quadrangle. It is a detached house of three storeys, the children's rooms being on the first floor. There are three of these, two for occupations, and one for games. The last is a bow-shaped room, looking out on to the ground enclosed by the houses, which is laid out with a



walk down the middle and strips of allotment-gardens on each side. The play-room is lighted by nine large windows, and faces south. In a small room off it, beds are provided for the youngest children. They consist of low wooden bedsteads, wide enough to hold five children in a row. The mattress is covered with a blanket, which, as well as the over blanket, is washed weekly. The other rooms are furnished with low benches and tables. Each table seats ten children, and for the different occupations the children are thus divided up into groups of ten. There is a good kitchen and larder also on the ground floor. Dinner is taken in one of the class-rooms, and eaten out of small enamel bowls. Pegs for the children's clothes are hung in the lobby. On the upper floor are the living rooms of the Kindergarten mistresses.

There is a small play-ground for the children, fenced in from the common ground and containing a play-shed, a sand-heap, and little plots for gardens. The children were outside at the time the institution was visited.

This institution is attended by from 60 to 80 children. The hours are from 8 to 6, though some children go home to mid-day dinner, with an hour and a-half's sleep in the afternoon. The age of admission is from two years to six. The fee charged is about 3½d. (35 pf.) weekly, which includes dinner (*see Appendix G*), afternoon coffee, and material for occupations. The children are provided with dark blue print overalls, one a week. The early breakfast (as well as a pocket handkerchief), is required to be brought by each child. Holidays are the same as in the schools. There are two mistresses, both trained Kindergarten teachers. This institution and a similar one of the same size in another "colony" are supported by the society which manages the buildings; they cost on an average (in addition to the payments of the children), about 4d. (37 pf.), per child, per school day.

#### (8) MUNICH.

The population of Munich is 538,983 (1905); there are 55 Public Elementary Schools (*Volksschulen*) attended by 61,758 children. Attendance at these schools only becomes compulsory on the children after they have reached the age of six. The provision made for the care and education of children between three and six years of age falls into two classes:—

- (1) The institutions supported by the municipality;
- (2) The institutions supported by private enterprise.

#### (1.) MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.

There are in Munich at present 23 Kindergartens under the care of the municipal authorities (*Stadt Gemeinde*). Up to January, 1907, these institutions had been directed and supported by a private society (*Münchener Kindergartenverein*) which

had existed since 1868. As this society, however, had no longer sufficient funds at its disposal to meet the necessary expenses, the municipal authorities agreed in September, 1906, to take over the entire charge of the Kindergarten Departments from the beginning of 1907. They had already for some time partially supported these departments, the *Stadt-Magistrat* giving a yearly grant of about £2,334 (46,693 M.), including a grant of £627 (12,548 M.) for teachers' salaries. A Kindergarten Department has been included in every new school for the last sixteen years, and the use of these buildings was granted to the society rent free, and without charge for heating and cleaning.

As the transference of the Kindergarten Departments has only taken place so recently the organisation is still in a transitory state.

#### *Building and Equipment.*

The Kindergarten Departments are on the ground floor, shut off from the rest of the school, and with a separate entrance. They consist generally of two rooms, with a cloak room, teachers' room, and lavatories for the boys and for the girls, these last being inside the building. There is always a garden attached, with a covered play-shed, and a plot either of grass or of gravel, surrounded by trees. The class-rooms vary in size in the different buildings. The furnishing is of the most simple description. One room contains long low tables with low benches, and the other is left empty in the middle for games, etc., and has benches round the walls. A piano and a few pictures and a cupboard or two complete the equipment, with the exception of the materials necessary for the various Kindergarten occupations. There are also benches and tables in the garden and in the play-shed, and the former often contains a sand-pit.

#### *The Staff.*

There are as yet no particular regulations as to the number of teachers in relation to the size of the classes. The number ranges at present from four in the largest schools (of about 140 children) to one in the smallest (40-45 children). There are at present in all 63 teachers.

#### *Qualifications and Training.*

Every teacher must have undergone training as a Kindergarten teacher. The Training College for Kindergarten Teachers in Munich (*Münchener Kindergärtnerinnen-Seminar*) is under private direction. The course lasts for a year, from September 15th to July 15th, and consists of instruction in the theory and practice of Kindergarten teaching. Candidates for entrance must be at least sixteen years old, and must have been at a Girls' Higher School, or some corresponding institution. These regulations have not hitherto been insisted upon very stringently. In future, however, they will probably be more strictly observed, and the period of training may be extended to two years. The cost of the year's training is about £9 (180 M.).

After leaving the Training College the Kindergarten teacher has to serve for a year in a school without salary as *Praktikantin*. She then serves for four years as *Hilfslehrerin*, and for three years as *Verweserin*; after these eight years she is recognised as a fully trained *Kindergärtnerin*.

The salaries are as follows:—*Hilfslehrerin* about £30 (600 M.) a year; *Verweserin* about £36 (720 M.); *Kindergärtnerin* £48 (960 M.), with five three-yearly increments, and five five-yearly increments of £3 respectively. Further the *Verweserin* is entitled to a pension of 65 per cent. of her salary, and the *Kindergärtnerin* to one of 70 per cent. in the first ten years of service, 80 per cent. in the second ten years, 90 per cent. from the twenty-first to the thirty-fifth years of service, 95 per cent. from the thirty-sixth to the fortieth; after fifty years' service she is entitled to the whole salary as pension. There is also an organising Kindergarten mistress (*Oberkindergärtnerin*) who receives an additional salary of £24 (480 M.)

#### *Holidays.*

The teachers receive the following holidays: *Praktikantin* 14 days; *Hilfslehrerin*, 4 weeks; *Verweserin* and *Kindergärtnerin*, 6 weeks.

#### *Conditions, etc., for Admission to Kindergarten.*

Children are received into the Kindergarten between the ages of 3 and 6. Attendance is voluntary, and entrance can take place at any time—the only conditions imposed are that the child shall be clean and free from any infectious or contagious disease.

#### *Fees.*

A fee is charged of 2s. (2 M.) a month; if two attend from the same family, half-price is charged for the second child. In the case of poverty the fees are remitted either in whole or in part.

#### *Hours, etc.*

The Kindergartens are open daily, except on Sundays and on certain public holidays, from 8 a.m. to 12, and from 2 to 6 p.m. They remain open during the summer vacation. It is possible to arrange for this and at the same time to give the teachers holidays without increasing the teaching staff, as the attendance is much smaller during the summer months.

#### *Instruction and Time-table.*

The instruction given is of the ordinary Kindergarten nature, consisting of games, action-songs, clay-modelling, paper-folding and weaving, etc. The object is to leave the children as free as possible, and to reduce anything approaching school discipline to a minimum. In summer the children are as much as possible in the garden, or at least in the open play shed. (*See Appendix D (1)*).

#### *Number of Children in Attendance.*

The latest available report of the Kindergarten Society, that for 1905, gives a total attendance in the year of 1,658 individual

(b) *KLEINKINDERSCHULEN* (INFANT SCHOOLS).

There are besides the *Kinderbewahranstalten*, four Catholic infants schools in Munich, supported by charitable societies. These institutions approach more nearly than the *Kinderbewahranstalten* to the regular *Kindergartens*. The teachers are paid, and do not belong to any religious order; they need not, however, have undergone regular Kindergarten training.

*Fees.*

The usual fee charged is 2s. (2 M.) monthly, with reductions in the case of more than one child attending from one family. A dinner of soup is provided at a daily charge of  $\frac{1}{4}$ d. Free places and free meals are granted in cases of poverty.

*Hours.*

The schools are open every week-day, in winter from 8 a.m. to 4 p.m., and in summer from 7 a.m. to 5 p.m. They are closed for a short time in the summer holidays.

*Instruction.*

The instruction and occupations are of the ordinary Kindergarten kind.

The monthly average attendance at the Infant Schools in 1905 was 366.

*Jewish Kindergarten.*

There has also been in existence in Munich for the last two years a Jewish Kindergarten for the children of poor Jewish parents. It is supported by a private society, and worked largely by voluntary helpers. There are three rooms accommodating thirty children. The children are received free, and are given a free breakfast of milk and bread; they also receive a warm bath once a week. The hours are from 8.15 a.m. to 12, and from 2 p.m. to 4.

*Cost of Private Infant Schools.*

As in the case of the *Kinderbewahranstalten*, the Infant Schools almost always form part of a larger building, and no separate estimates are to be had as to the expense of erection or the cost of maintenance. In one instance, however, a separate building had been erected for an Infant School alone at a cost of, roughly, £500 (10,000 M.). This was for the building only, which was of one storey and contained two rooms, kitchen, cloak-room, visitors' room, and lavatories. The cost of the garden and play-shed was not included in the estimate given. The school had an average attendance of 180 children with one teacher and two assistants. Of these, ten were received free and 138 at half-price. The expenditure for the year 1906 was about £190 (3,806 marks), roughly, £1 1s. per child.

## (9) ZURICH.

## (1) MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.

*Supervision.*

In each of the five districts (*Kreise*) into which Zurich is divided a Committee (*Kindergarten-Kommission*) of from five to 10 members, formed from the District School Committee (*Kreis-Schulpflege*), is appointed to superintend the public Kindergarten classes. There are further three women inspectors, whose duty it is to visit Kindergartens, and private *Kinderbewahranstalten* in the City and surrounding district (*Bezirk-Zurich*). These women inspectors are teachers, one in a Kindergarten, and two in elementary schools, and the work of inspection is carried on in addition to their school work. Each of them is bound to visit each institution allotted to her twice a year, and she receives 6 francs for each visit. There are about 25 institutions for each inspectress.

*Regulations, etc.*

In the public Kindergartens children are admitted from the end of the third to the end of the fifth year. No fees are charged. The hours are from 9 to 11 a.m. and from 2 to 4 p.m., with two afternoons free in the week. One teacher is allowed to every 40 children. Salaries begin at 1,400 francs a year, and rise gradually, till, after twenty-one years of service, the maximum of 2,400 francs is reached. A pension is given, amounting to 60 per cent. of the salary, at the time of retiring. (For the occupations, etc., of the Kindergartens, see *Appendix E* (1)).

*Accommodation.*

The public Kindergartens are held for the most part in the public schools, where a room on the ground floor is assigned to each class. They have generally the use of another room for playing. The Kindergarten children share the common playground, but have separate offices inside the building. In some quarters of the city, however, where there is no convenient school, rooms are hired for the purpose of a Kindergarten.

*School Dinners.*

In the poorer districts the Kindergarten children are given soup and bread at mid-day, and in some cases milk. This is supplied free out of a fund made up of Municipal and private contributions. This fund also provides clothes, shoes, and spectacles for poor children.

*Medical Inspection.*

The Kindergarten children do not come under the regular medical inspection, though the school doctor can be called in if necessary. They share, however, with the other school children in the periodical inspection of heads. This occurs twice or thrice a year, and is carried out, with the aid of a powerful magnifying

glass, by a woman appointed for the purpose, who acts as a sort of assistant to the school doctor. The parents of children who are found to be in a dirty condition are warned, and if the warning has no effect the authorities have power to have the offending child cleansed. Compulsory cleansings are rare, however, as they are looked upon as a great disgrace.

There are at present 47 Kindergarten classes in Zurich, attended in 1906 by 1,823 children. Of this number 266 children received mid-day soup.

The yearly cost of the Municipal Kindergartens is not estimated separately from the general school expenses.

#### *Training of Teachers.*

A course of training for Kindergarten teachers is held in Zurich every second year in the Girls' Public High School (*Höhere Töchtereschule*). The number of students is limited to 30. The course is free, and consists of 32 hours a week, 10 of which are occupied with practical work in the Kindergartens. The subjects consist of German (five hours), History of Education (three hours), Method (two hours), Hygiene (two hours), Natural History (two hours), Geometry (one hour), Drawing (two hours), Singing (two hours), Gymnastics (one hour), Handwork (two hours) (*see Appendix F (4)*).

#### *Equipment : Time-table.*

The Kindergarten system of Zurich is well organised, and the occupations are carried out on broad and reasonable lines. The accommodation naturally varies. Where the class is held in a school the rooms are large, well provided with windows, and heated with hot pipes. The furnishing consists of low tables, seating four or five children a side, with either low benches or little chairs with arms. Pegs for hats and cloaks are generally in the corridor. Where rooms are hired for the purposes of a Kindergarten the accommodation may leave a good deal to be desired. One class which was visited, for instance, was held in a room on the ground floor of a corner house. Though the room itself was fairly large and well lighted, the lavatory accommodation and the offices were very deficient, and there was no garden. There was, however, a public square just outside, and country walks were within reach.

No general time-table is insisted upon in the Kindergarten classes, and the division of time is left largely in the hands of the individual teacher. Where it is possible country walks are taken on fine afternoons. One class was visited as it assembled in the morning. Proceedings began with a short prayer, which was followed by an individual inspection of hands, which were satisfactorily clean in each case. Then came the roll-call, and after some recitation of poetry, the children were divided into groups and placed round tables. One set was given large beads to thread, another bricks to build with, a third pricked cards to sew, while the fourth set made patterns on the table with porcelain buttons.

(Porcelain buttons of different sizes and colours are used in Zurich instead of cardboard discs. Though more expensive they have the advantage of being easily washed, and not easily destroyed.) Talking was allowed among the children.

## (2) PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS.

In 1906 there were 19 *Kleinkinderbewahranstalten* or *Spieleschulen* in Zurich attended by 1,005 children. These are under the same Municipal supervision as the public Kindergartens, and have to conform to certain regulations laid down by the city. They are not allowed to take children before the completion of the fourth year, and all teachers must be trained. The hours are the same as in the Kindergartens, and the fee charged is from 60 to 100 centimes a month. These institutions receive no support from the city. Many of them are of old standing, and were founded as far back as 1830. Generally speaking they are not modern either in spirit or method, and they seem to exist largely for religious reasons. Much greater weight is laid in them on religious instruction than in the town Kindergartens. The object, for instance, of the *Verein für Kleinkinderbewahranstalten* (Zurich) is stated in the Society's regulations to be "to receive children under school age, to influence their education through the principles of the Christian religion, and to further their development, bodily and mental. For this purpose no other means are to be employed than those used by a Christian mother in a well-regulated family for the education of her children." In general the tone of the reports of the different private Societies (some seven in all) are rather on the defensive as against the public institutions. Some of them state, however, that they have not sufficient places to supply the demand, and congratulate themselves that "even in these days of State management many parents prefer schools for which they must make a sacrifice to the free schools."

As an example of the cost of these private institutions, the following extract from the accounts of a Society maintaining three *Bewahranstalten*, attended by about 160 children, may be given :—

Expenses (1905-6).	Fr.	ct.
(a) Salaries of Mistresses - - - -	6,900	—
(b) Upkeep, care and heating of buildings -	764	45
(c) Interest - - - - -	637	50
(d) Cost of building and repairing - - -	1,264	50
(e) Divers expenses - - - - -	342	65
Total - - - - -	9,909	10

The total amount received in school fees was Fr. 1,250 20c.

## (10) BASLE.

## (1) MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.

In Basle the same system of public kindergartens exists as in Zurich, and here also all institutions for children between three and six are under municipal supervision. In Basle, however, the number of municipal classes is larger than in Zurich, and private institutions are gradually being taken over by the city. Municipal organisation in this city dates from 1895

*Supervision.*

In Basle, the public Kindergartens, or *Kleinkinderanstalten* as they are called, are under the general supervision of the Education Department (*Erziehungs Departement*), and under the particular supervision of a special committee (*Kommission der Kleinkinderanstalten*), consisting of a president and eight members, three of whom must be women, chosen by the Municipal Council (*Regierungsrat*) for a period of three years. This committee has the power of appointing a Ladies' Committee of from three to five members for each individual institution.

There is further a woman inspector appointed by the Education Department at a yearly salary of from 3,000 francs to 5,000 francs, who has charge of all institutions public and private. Her duties are carefully laid down in the official regulations. She organises the public Kindergartens, keeps the accounts, and supervises the attendance returns. She visits the different classes, inspects the management of the children, the sanitary conditions, &c., and arranges any difficulties that may arise, such as those between parents and teacher. She reports to the special committee, to which she acts as secretary. She also arranges conferences with the teachers of the *Kleinkinderanstalten*, at which she takes the chair.

*Regulations.*

Children are admitted to the public Kindergartens from the end of the third to the end of the fifth year. Attendance is optional and free. The hours are from 9 to 11 a.m. and from 2 to 4 p.m. There is one teacher to every 40 children; where the class is over 40 an assistant is appointed. The salaries for teachers range from 1,500 francs to 2,000 francs yearly with a supplement after 10 years' service, and another after 15 years' service, rising altogether to a maximum of 2,350 francs. Assistants begin with 1,000 francs yearly. Pensions are given of from 1,000 francs to 1,500 francs a year.



*Instruction.*

The occupations laid down in the official regulations as suitable for children between 3 and 6, are story-telling, observation and description of objects and pictures, practice in speaking, simple handwork, games and singing. No one occupation is to last more than three-quarters of an hour. It is expressly stated that no instruction in reading, writing or arithmetic is to be given. Teachers are to strive to train the children in obedience, honesty, and love of truth, and "to plant the seed of childish piety in their hearts." They are to pay great attention to the bodily care of the children, to see that they sit, stand and walk in a rational way, and to guard against any straining of sight or hearing. Corporal punishment is only allowed in exceptional cases, and then only in a way which would not go beyond mild paternal punishment (*"nur in einer Weise welche die Grenzen einer mässigen elterlichen Zucht nicht überschreiten."*)\* The children in the Kindergarten are not as yet medically inspected. The poorer ones get boots and clothing from the Municipality.

*Numbers, Cost, etc.*

In 1906 there were 73 Municipal institutions in Basle with 74 classes. The number of children in attendance was 3,213, with 42 teachers and 32 assistants. The estimated expenditure on the part of the municipality for 1903 is 280,000 francs. This includes rent, salaries, material, etc., as well as grants to private institutions.

*Training course for Kindergarten Teachers.*

A free course of training for teachers in *Kleinkinderanstalten* is held in the Girls' High School in Basle. The course lasts a year, and follows the same lines as the similar course in Zurich.

## (2) PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS.

Private institutions for children between 3 and 6 years of age are under the same supervision and regulations as the public ones. A private institution can only be opened with the permission of the Council of Education (*Erziehungsrat*), which must be satisfied that the qualifications of the teacher, the size of the classes, the accommodation provided, etc., are satisfactory. All private institutions which charge no fees, and in which the mistress has a salary of at least 1,000 francs yearly, can receive grants from the municipality. These grants are from 500 francs to 600 francs yearly in each case. In 1906 there were 20 private institutions in Basle, attended by 836 children.

*Kinderhorte for Children under School Age †.*

There is a further interesting development of private enterprise in Basle. *Kinderhorte* are provided in some quarters of the

\* This regulation, however, is never taken advantage of and is practically a dead letter.

† See also Appendix J.

town for children attending the *Kleinkinderanstalten*. So far as is known Basle is the only place where such institutions exist for the small children, though in all German and Swiss towns a more or less flourishing system of *Kinderhorte* is carried on for children of school age. The need of such a provision for small children is not so apparent in many towns where the *Kinderbewahranstalten* are open till evening. But where, as in Basle, they shut at 4 o'clock, some further provision is obviously necessary in the case of children whose mothers are at work. It is probable that *Horte* for small children will soon be opened in Zurich also.

There are at present four *Horte* for children between three and six in Basle, accommodating about 40 children each. They are supported by the *Gemeinnützige Gesellschaft*, and are held in the same buildings as the *Kindergartens*. The *Hort* is open as a rule from October to March, between the hours of 4 and 6.30 p.m. It is under the charge of one of the kindergarten teachers, who receives 2½ francs or 3 francs an evening. The children play games, and amuse themselves with toys. They get bread and sometimes milk at 4 o'clock. The children attending a *Hort* are not necessarily the children who attend the Kindergarten in the same building, as the *Hort* serves a whole district and is intended only for the poorer children.

None of the *Kleinkinderanstalten* visited in Basle offered anything remarkable in the way of building or equipment. The whole system is excellently organised and supervised, but some of the buildings seemed to come far short, especially in sanitary matters, of the standard laid down in the official regulations. These regulations indeed would appear at present to be rather a counsel of perfection, and are not strictly obeyed in every detail.

#### (11) GENEVA.\*

##### *Regulations.*

The general regulations for the infant schools in Geneva have already been given (see p. 145). These Schools are open in the morning from 8.15 to 11, and in the afternoon from 1.15 to 4. Entrance takes place four times a year, viz., after the summer holidays in October, January, and after the Easter holidays. The holidays are the same as in the elementary schools. Classes may not exceed 40. Poor children are fed in winter, from November till Easter, either free or for a payment of 4 sous a day. The classes are medically inspected every two months.

*Salaries.*

The following extract from the Budget of the Canton of Geneva for 1906 gives the cost of salaries in the infant schools in the town and canton of Geneva in that year:—

Ecoles Infantines.*				Fr.	c.	Fr.	c.
A. Traitement de l'inspectrice	-	-	-	3,300	00	3,900	00
Frais de déplacement	-	-	-	600	00		
B. Traitement de 156 maîtresses	-	-	-	-	-	252,030	00
de 30 sous-maîtresses	-	-	-	-	-		
Part de l'Etat	-	-	-	168,020	05		
Part des communes	-	-	-	45,209	95		
Part de la ville	-	-	-	38,800	00		
C. Indemnité aux maîtresses qui dirigent une division primaire	-	-	-	-	-	2,000	00
D. Frais de suppléances	-	-	-	-	-	4,000	00
E. Indemnité pour cours nouveaux	-	-	-	-	-	500	00
Dépense totale				-	-	262,430	00
à déduire : Part de la ville et des communes				-	-	84,009	95
Rest à la charge de l'Etat				-	-	178,420	05

*Training of Teachers.*

Free courses of training for teachers in the *écoles enfantines* are conducted in connection with these schools.† Candidates have to pass :

(a) A preliminary examination to show that their general education has reached the stage of the third class of the *école secondaire et supérieure des jeunes filles*.

(b) A competitive examination for admission to the special training. Candidates must be between 17 and 30, and of Swiss nationality. The examination includes French composition, reading and discussion of a literary extract, recitation of poetry, the working out on the black board of a problem in simple arithmetic, singing, a simple sketch from nature, and a page of hand-writing. The examination may only be attempted twice.

(c) Successful candidates then enter upon a special training course (*le stage*), which takes place partly in special classes in the infant schools (*classes d'application*), partly in normal courses on education in general, and the methods of Froebel. The final examination consists of a composition on some educational subject, and the conducting of a class, including lessons, games and occupations, according to the programme of the *écoles enfantines*. Successful candidates receive the *certificat d'aptitude à l'enseignement dans les écoles enfantines*, which the Council of State demands from all teachers in the infant schools.

\* From *Budget du Canton de Genève pour l'année 1906, Section VI. ; Département de l'Instruction Publique.*

† See *Règlement concernant les examens et le stage des aspirantes aux fonctions de Maîtresse et de sous-Maîtresse dans les écoles enfantines.* Geneva, 1905.

### III.—THE CRÈCHE SYSTEM IN GERMANY AND SWITZERLAND.

Crèches or *Krippen* exist in most German and Swiss towns, and form as a rule a distinct class of institutions apart from the Kindergartens or *Bewahranstalten*. Generally speaking children are admitted into the *Krippen* from the age of from three to six weeks until the end of the third year, and though occasionally they may be kept until the compulsory school age is reached, children over three do not properly come within the sphere of the *Krippe*. In most cases they pass at the age of three from the *Krippe* into the Kindergarten or the *Bewahranstalt*. *Krippen* in Germany, and in German-speaking Switzerland, are not municipally organized or supervised, though they may receive grants from the municipality. They are supported always by private charitable societies. The number of such institutions varies greatly in the different towns. In Leipzig, for instance, there are none at present, those which previously existed having been given up, as the demand for them was so small; Munich, on the other hand, has some eight *Krippen* in the city itself, besides others in the suburbs; Dresden has four; Frankfurt, about six; Cologne and Düsseldorf one each; Zurich, four; Basel, five; and Geneva, four. As no register appears to be kept of the *Krippen* generally it is not possible to give the total number of children received in them in any one town.

#### REGULATIONS.

The rules of the *Krippe* are much the same everywhere. The average age of admission is six weeks, though in some cases much younger children are received. It is not considered desirable, however, to take infants of a few days into the *Krippe*, except in cases of absolute necessity, as it encourages the mother to work sooner than is advisable for her health. The *Krippe* is intended only for children whose mothers are at work, and is open from 5.30 or 6 a.m. till the factories close in the evening, or, in some towns, till 8 p.m. The charge made is generally 20 pf. (about 2d.) a day, in Switzerland from 20 to 30 centimes, and a reduction is allowed if more than one child attends from the same family. In some institutions a lower charge is made for nursing mothers who are able to visit the *Krippe* during the day. In Frankfurt, for instance, a nursing mother who comes once during the day is charged only 10 pf., and if she comes twice her child is received free. As a rule, however, few mothers are able to visit the institution by day. In nearly every institution free places are given. Illegitimate children are also generally received; if a regulation to the contrary appears among the rules of a *Krippe* it does not seem to be kept very strictly.

# STAFF.

The *Krippen* are in most cases under the charge of Sisters (Catholic or Protestant), often with voluntary helpers. In nearly every case the Sister is trained in the management and care of infants.

## CARE OF CHILDREN : MEALS.

When the children arrive in the morning they are completely undressed and put into clean clothes. The infants are bathed daily, the older children twice or thrice a week. Infants are fed every two or three hours with milk and rice or barley water, according to the directions of the doctor attending the *Krippe*, the older children get milk and bread in the early morning, dinner about 11 a.m., sometimes with meat twice a week, sometimes only of milk-food, milk and bread again in the afternoon, and in some institutions a further meal of soup before leaving. In some institutions, too, it is the custom to give the mothers properly prepared milk to use during the night, and also a supply over Sunday, as it is found that the children suffer from the change of food. The older children all have a two hours' sleep after dinner, and the rest of the time they are amused with toys and games; Kindergarten occupations are also employed in some cases. The children are as much as possible in the open air, a garden being an essential part of every well-equipped *Krippe*.

## COST.

No general rules can be laid down as to the municipal grants received by the *Krippen*, as these vary considerably. Nor is it possible except in a few instances to give the cost of such an institution per child per year, as the accounts are often not given in detail. A few examples are to be had, however. Thus, in Frankfurt in 1905-6, the cost in three *Krippen*, with an average attendance of 28, 23 and 14 children, was respectively 68 pf., 73 pf. and 93 pf. per child per day; in Munich, six *Krippen* were maintained at an average cost of 60 pf. per child per day; in Zurich, the cost per child per day for three *Krippen*, attended on an average by 68 children, was 1 fr. 09 cts.; the cost of a crèche in Geneva, attended altogether in 1906 by 93 children, was 1 fr. 04 cts. a day.

## NOTES ON INDIVIDUAL KRIPPEN.

The following notes of visits paid to *Krippen* in Frankfurt and in Basle describe the latest developments in the way of housing and arranging these institutions.

### (1) *Krippe at Frankfurt.*

This *Krippe* is lodged in a flat in a colony of workmen's dwellings, just above the Kindergarten described on page 157. It accommodates 60 children under the management

of two Sisters, with a cook and a washerwoman. Voluntary helpers also give some assistance with the older children. The rooms consist of a receiving room, where the children are taken in on arriving and undressed, their own clothes being hung in string bags; a bath-room with two large zinc baths and one small one, all raised; a large play-room and an infants' room, as well as a kitchen and offices. There is further a covered glass verandah where the older children play. Some of the fittings of this *Krippe* are very practical. In the bath room, for instance, there is a sort of dresser with a ledge that puts up, on which the babies can safely be laid for dressing. In the play-room a kind of low sloping wooden locker runs along one side of the wall, and on this mattresses covered with dark American cloth are laid for the older children at sleeping time. When not in use the mattresses are kept inside the locker. The play-room also contains at one end circular wooden forms, surrounded by a railing. The babies' room is very dainty, as the cots, hung on wheels, are covered with white piqué, and have curtains of pink and white muslin. (The curtains, however, had been condemned by the doctor as unsanitary, and he preferred plain unadorned cribs of white enamelled iron.) The cupboards hold a plentiful store of clothes and linen, tied up with ribbons in the neat German way. The babies in this *Krippe* wear jerseys or little jackets knitted in white cotton, the older children suits of thick striped calico, pink and white or blue and white, according to the sex. There is also a good supply of toys. Sanitary arrangements are excellent and the play-room and verandah beautifully airy and sunny.

## (2) *Krippe in Basle.*

The latest institutions of this kind in Basle are built on lines of which the following *Krippe* is an example. In this building the entrance from the street leads into the courtyard or garden, which has a covered shed at one end. Here the perambulators in which the children are brought by the mothers are stored till the evening, and here the children are received. A door leads from the shed into the bath and reception-room, so that the children never enter the other rooms in their home clothes. These latter are stored for the day in a cupboard, and are disinfected with formalin once a week. Out of the bath-room opens a covered glass verandah which serves as play-room, and out of this again a sleeping-room with cots for the bigger children. Then comes the infants' room with small wicker cots like clothes baskets on wheels. This opens into a passage, into which the private entrance gives. On the other side of this passage are the kitchen, wash-house, bath-room and lavatory for the staff, and larder.

[For specimen regulations and tables of expenses of *Krippen*, see Appendix H.]

#### IV.—CONCLUSION.

In general it may be said that we have less to learn from Germany in regard to institutions for young children than is the case in other departments of her social and educational work.

A comparison of the institutions provided in the two countries is however difficult, owing to their different nature. In this country by far the greater number of children under school age who attend an institution at all attend an elementary school, and the number of children thus provided for is much greater than the number of children provided for in institutions in Germany. Unfortunately the latter number cannot be reckoned exactly. According to the statistics given in *Appendix A* the total number of children between three and six attending institutions in Germany in 1901-02 was about 79,117; in England and Wales in that year there were 613,473\* children under five attending school. The admission of children under five to the schools in this country seems to have been carried out on no very definite policy, either social or educational, although the modern institution of "babies' classes," containing some of the best features of the Kindergarten, has no doubt given a certain educational value to the attendance of very young children at school. In Germany the whole movement for the care of young children has been based on much more definite aims—the positive aim of providing shelter and wholesome surroundings for the children of the poor, and in the Kindergartens, the further positive aim of developing the faculties of the young child in accordance with his age and nature. We have nothing to compare in this country with the very large number of institutions, maintained by private charitable societies, which in Germany take charge of children between three and six; for our day-nurseries are few in number, and belong more to the class of institutions known as *Krippen* in Germany, where they are also not very numerous.

#### COMPARISON OF ENGLISH AND GERMAN METHODS.

As far as the method of handling the children and the nature of the occupations are concerned, this country appears to be quite abreast of modern German ideas. It is now generally recognised here that the methods and subjects suitable for older children are often very unsuitable for children under five, and in the special "babies' classes," time-tables are followed from which formal instruction in the three R's is altogether excluded, and which are quite as good as anything to be found in Germany. Where German institutions are perhaps superior is in the general absence of anything of the set school-room, owing largely to the substitution of tables and chairs for fixed benches, and in the greater elasticity of the time-table. The duration of any particular occupation is left largely to the discretion of the mistress, and in the summer and fine weather the whole time-

\* This number included 2,484 under three. The numbers in 1905-6 between three and five had fallen to 497,643.

table is either modified or set aside altogether, to allow of out-of-door work or free play in the garden, or walks when the country is near. Rigid discipline is never insisted upon, and the relation between children and teacher (who is always addressed as *Tante*) seems everywhere of the happiest. Talking is allowed within limits, and the healthy noise that arises from the playground proves that discipline is not unduly repressive. Much attention is paid to the social side of life. As in all German institutions, public or private, the Christmas festivities form the crowning point of the year, and opportunities are taken at these of providing the poorer children with clothes; there are also many small excursions and treats in summer. *Elterna'ende*, too, evening meetings with parents, for discussion and explanation of the work, are known in the Kindergartens as well as in the ordinary schools. In all these ways home and institution are drawn together.

#### TRAINING GIVEN IN GERMANY FOR THE CARE OF CHILDREN

One point that emerges very clearly from the inquiry is the great weight laid in Germany on special training for the care of young children. This extends as we have seen not only to those in charge of institutions, but also to private nurses and nursery-governesses, and to individual mothers. In regard to institutions there exists in Germany (as also in America) a special class of teacher for young children, such as we do not know in this country. It is possible that the institution of some such class here might help to bring about the much needed reform of the reduction of the size of classes, as far as the infant room is concerned; it would in any case seem to be needed if "babies' classes" are to continue. What has been said as to the importance laid on training applies also to Switzerland. The organisation of all institutions for young children in that country, both public and private, under women inspectors, as carried out in Basle and Zurich, is thorough and sensible.

#### THE KINDERGARTEN.

It should be noted that in Germany the Kindergarten is carried further on in the child's life than with us, and that as the compulsory school age in that country starts with the end, instead of the beginning of the sixth year, definite formal instruction begins, generally speaking, a year later than in England. It is possible that some modification of the curriculum in the first year of school life might be introduced with advantage into some of our infant departments, especially in places where no "babies' classes" exist, and where there is thus a certain proportion of children under five in the infant room itself. The problems connected with the linking on of the Kindergarten to the school have not as yet received much general attention in Germany (*see Appendix D (3)*), and in that country, as elsewhere, there is some difference of opinion as to the value of the Kindergarten as a preparation for the ordinary school. It is urged against the Kindergarten that it



tends to deaden the children's interest in intellectual work, and in its favour that both the moral training, in the way of discipline, and the mental training are an excellent preparation for school work. It should be added that in Germany, as in this country, real Kindergarten training, "conscious nurture of the free self-activity of childhood," is often made impossible by the excessive size of the class allowed to one teacher.

#### BUILDINGS.

In the matter of buildings the average institution in this country, whether "babies' class" or day nursery, is probably as well housed as the average institution in Germany or Switzerland; in sanitary matters, indeed, our standard is higher. On the other hand we seem to have nothing so good in the way of building as the best and newest of the German institutions. And in one point all foreign institutions are superior to ours. All of them possess some sort of a garden or playground with a covered play-shed. These playgrounds are really pleasant places, always containing trees, frequently flowers, and small plots for children's gardens. Creepers grow upon the walls, and the sun often shines into the Kindergarten through a green frame of vine leaves. Few of our private institutions have gardens at all, and our school playgrounds are generally lacking in any of the qualities of a garden; and though it would be impossible for children in this country to be so much out of doors as on the Continent, still, we might be more prepared than we often are to take advantage of fine weather when we have it. At any rate, the provision of a garden should be aimed at, wherever possible, in the planning of a day-nursery, and education authorities might consider the question of a separate playground for the smallest children, which would be always at their disposal.

#### CLEANLINESS OF CHILDREN IN ENGLAND, GERMANY, AND SWITZERLAND.

There is one other important point in which foreign institutions, as well as elementary schools generally, are very superior to our own, namely, in the much greater cleanliness and tidiness of the children attending them. The regulation that children attending a Kindergarten must be provided with a clean pocket-handkerchief, though it may seem a small matter, is significant of the high standard of personal cleanliness set and obtained in Germany and Switzerland. A pocket-handkerchief in any condition is probably an article of dress unknown to large numbers of children in our poorer elementary schools. The general impression given by the children in the Kindergartens and *Bewahranstalten* was one of clean hands and faces, neat pinafores, and tidy heads. There were no bare-footed children, except in summer, when bare feet are a matter of comfort and convenience. Nor were there any visible signs of neglect

in the way of dirt and rags. It is true that the very neglected children would probably not be brought to a *Bewahranstalt* at all, but there was no evidence in the streets of the poorer quarters that such children exist to any extent, though the reports of charitable societies, bear witness to a certain amount of social distress. Something is due no doubt to the efforts of those in charge of institutions in regard to this matter, but the chief credit for the high level of cleanliness and neatness must be set down to the undoubtedly higher sense for these things which prevails in the poorer sections of the population abroad as compared with those in our own country.

The children in the municipal Kindergartens in Germany and Switzerland, it may be added, do not share in the weekly compulsory bath, which is a feature of both German and Swiss elementary schools. The buildings in all cases are kept scrupulously clean.

M. G. MAY.

## APPENDIX A.

STATISTICS<sup>1</sup> OF "KINDERBEWAHRANSTALTEN," "KLEINKINDERSCHULEN" AND "KINDERGÄRTEN" IN GERMANY IN THE YEARS 1901-2 (IN SOME CASES 1902).

Towns.	Existing Institutions.		No. in attendance at end of 1902 (including free scholars).		No. of Free Scholars		Persons engaged in direction, charge, or attendance.		Total sum of Municipal Grants in 1901-2 (or 1902) to institutions in Column 3.
	Total No.	Municipal or receiving Municipal Grants.	in all institutions (Column 2).	in Municipal institutions, etc. (Column 3).	in all institutions.	in Municipal institutions, etc. (Column 3).	Total No.	No. of Trained Kindergarten Teachers.	
1	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
Aachen	8	—	1,253	—	654	—	49	40	M —
Altona	6	3	803	563	177	56	25	24	1,500
Augsburg	10	5	1,034	506	74	52	32	9	7,000
Barmen	28	—	3,279	—	232	—	45	37	—
Berlin <sup>2</sup>	62	1	5,061	1	1	1	1	92	1
Bochum	6	5	650	550	80	50	10	6	2,025
Breslau	45	24	3,319	1,776	638	477	88	57	3,760
Cassel	12	5	889	494	23	21	30	13	3,750
Charlottenburg	7	—	184	—	—	—	9	4	—
Chemnitz	12	6	996	721	19	15	31	14	4,000
Düsseldorf	36	12	3,754	1,196	277	73	86	49	16,148

<sup>1</sup> "Statistisches Jahrbuch Deutscher Städte, XII. Jahrgang," p. 397. (No distinction is made between the kinds of institutions.)<sup>2</sup> Later figures are given in Appendix B.

APPENDIX A.—*continued.*

Towns.	Existing Institutions.		No. in attendance at end of 1902 (including free scholars)		No. of Free Scholars.		Persons engaged in direction, charge, or attendance.		Total sum of Municipal Grants in 1901-2 (or 1902) to institutions in Column 3.
	Total No.	Municipal or receiving Municipal Grants.	in all institutions (Column 2).	in Municipal institutions, etc. (Column 3).	in all institutions.	in Municipal institutions, etc. (Column 3).	Total No.	No. of Trained Kindergarten Teachers.	
1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
Crefeld <sup>1</sup>	19	—	1,107	—	119	—	33	20	M.
Danzig	13	1	712	340	655	22	43	18	1,200
Dortmund	20	7	2,049	529	280	172	52	38	19,007 <sup>3</sup>
Dresden	22	11	3,364	2,621	356	143	66	30	9,550
Düsseldorf <sup>2</sup>	25	23	3,298	3,226	825	51	39	—	12,495
Duisburg	8	—	1,199	—	104	—	20	8	—
Elberfeld	21	—	1,712	—	100	—	47	22	—
Erfurt	7	3	394	305	89	67	14	7	2,317
Essen	12	—	1,970	—	246	—	35	17	—
Frankfurt a. M. <sup>2</sup>	21	11	2,321	1,504	124	22	46	31	7,140
Frankfurt a. O.	7	5	471	400	42	40	7	2	540
Freiburg i. Br.	11	11	1,576	1,576	187	187	39	24	7,060
Görlitz	3	2	87	65	5	2	6	1	710
Halle a. S.	15	6	929	333	50	21	32	19	2,670
Hamburg <sup>1</sup>	36	—	2,699	—	108	—	139	54	—
Hannover	15	2	1,341	244	25	—	72	30	1,160
Karlsruhe	22	—	1,932	—	37	—	45	22	—
Kiel	2	—	152	—	9	—	4	2	—

Leipzig <sup>2</sup>	-	-	-	32	28	2,516	2,430	82	82	72	38	10,325
Liegnitz	-	-	-	6	3	357	160	78	5	6	6	500
Lübeck <sup>3</sup>	-	-	-	7	-	394	-	-	-	26	10	-
Magdeburg	-	-	-	20	2	1,036	165	91	25	50	26	1,050
Mainz	-	-	-	2	1	182	80	20	-	3	3	115
Mannheim	-	-	-	19	5	2,098	660	143	90	62	28	1,200
Metz	-	-	-	20	11	1,186	882	823	812	29	21	25,538
Mülhausen i. E.	-	-	-	23	23	3,820	3,820	764	764	72	23	47,222
München <sup>2</sup>	-	-	-	50	8	4,623	1,003	431	127	174	119	10,038
Nürnberg	-	-	-	27	17	2,752	1,913	136	73	50	36	2,150
Plauen i. V.	-	-	-	4	4	360	360	11	11	8	8	11,916
Posen	-	-	-	22	2	1,531	157	563	3	51	38	1,400 <sup>4</sup>
Spandau	-	-	-	1	1	50	50	5	5	2	1	-
Strassburg i. E.	-	-	-	27	22	4,464	4,381	4,381	4,381	121	58	80,597
Stuttgart	-	-	-	25	17	3,879	3,146	448	382	90	32	13,500
Wiesbaden	-	-	-	2	2	312	312	17	17	17	5	8,547
Würzburg	-	-	-	7	5	832	701	42	29	22	14	3,239
Zwickau	-	-	-	1	1	130	130	14	14	4	1	800

<sup>2</sup> Later figures are given in Appendix B.

<sup>3</sup> Including a grant of 12,007 M. to two Municipal "Kinderbewahranstalten," attended also by children of school age.

<sup>4</sup> Hamburg does not support any institution directly, but the "Armenverwaltung" pays for the care of poor children, and thus indirectly supports most of the institutions.

<sup>5</sup> Lübeck gives no grant in money, but provides a number of meals.

<sup>6</sup> Including a grant of 900 M. to an institution, in support of the training of Kindergarten teachers.

## APPENDIX B.

TABLE GIVING THE PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN UNDER SCHOOL AGE ATTENDING INSTITUTIONS IN THE TOWNS VISITED (EXCLUSIVE OF CRÈCHES).

Towns.	Total Population.	Population under school age.	Number of Institutions.		Approximate number of Children attending Institutions.	Percentage in attendance under school age.
			Municipal.	Private.		
Berlin - - - - -	2,040,148 (1905)	211,948 (1905)	-	63	5,688	2·67
Cologne - - - - -	428,722 (1905)	61,263 (1905)	9	35	No figures available	
Crefeld - - - - -	112,000	15,000	-	15	1,200	8
Düsseldorf - - - - -	253,274 (1905)	32,524 (1905)	8	19	3,752	11·53
Frankfurt - - - - -	340,000 (1906)	40,769 (1905)	2	28	3,000	7·35
Leipzig - - - - -	518,682 (1906)	61,139 (1905)	-	32	2,516	4·11
Munich - - - - -	538,983 (1905)	64,157 (1905)	23	30	5,506	8·58
Basel - - - - -	{ 130,000 (1906) 112,227 (1900) }	16,000 (1900)	73	20	4,049	25·30
Zurich - - - - -	169,400	20,002 (1900)	47	19	2,828	14·14

<sup>1</sup> The percentage is in some cases misleading; e.g., in Frankfurt, though the percentage is lower than in Düsseldorf, the standard of the institutions is much higher. A high percentage may be due to the fact that very large classes are allowed to each teacher.

SPECIMEN COPY OF RULES FOR ADMISSION TO A KINDERGARTEN  
(FRANKFURT).

1. The People's Kindergarten offers children of from three to six years old a safe shelter, and occupation adapted to their age, in cases where the parents are at work in or out of the house, and prevented from looking after their children.
2. The Kindergarten is open on week-days : in winter from 9 to 12 ; in the afternoon from 2 to 5 ; in summer from 8 to 12 ; in the afternoon from 2 to 5 ; on Saturdays only till 12 o'clock.
3. The vaccination certificate must be produced with the application for admission. The decision as to admission remains with the Committee.
4. The fee amounts, according to circumstances, to from 75 pf. to 3 M. monthly, and is to be paid by the child's mother, in the beginning of the month. Children who enter from the 15th onwards pay half.
5. If a child is absent without excuse for longer than 8 days another child is admitted in its place.
6. For the milk, which is given at 10 a.m. and at 4 p.m., the children must bring 5 pf. daily ; they must also bring 2 rolls.
7. Caps and cloaks must be marked with the full name.
8. It is desired that the children be brought and fetched punctually, also that they be sent to the institution fully and cleanly clad, well washed and combed, and provided with a pocket-handkerchief.
9. The mistress is empowered to send a child home on account of suspected illness.
10. If a child is unwell longer than 3 days, especially in the case of infectious illnesses, scarlet fever, whooping-cough, measles, notice is to be given to the *Kindergärtnerin*. Brothers and sisters will not then be allowed to visit the Kindergarten. Parents must take care that children attending the Kindergarten do not come into contact with sick children. The orders of the doctor attending the institution are to be followed implicitly.
11. Proper attention must be given to the regulations of the Committee, as well as to those of the *Kindergärtnerinnen*. Parents who do not follow these rules lose the right to have their children admitted to the institution. In particular cases the Committee can order the immediate exclusion of a child.

### SPECIMEN TIME-TABLES.

(1) *Time-table of the Kindergartens in Munich.*

**MORNING.**

[illegible]





(2) *Time-table of a Kleinkinderbewahranstalt.*

Hours.	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.
7.30-9.30		Children	assemble and play together free			
9.30-10	Learning by rote. Singing	Bible History	As Monday	As Tuesday	Questions on Bible History	Storytelling
10-10.45			Lunch and Free Play			
10.45-11.10	Drill	Ring Games	Plaiting or Pricking	Drill	Ring Games	Free
11.10-11.30	Speaking or Object Lesson	Building	Embroidery Cards	Storytelling	Painting or Stick- laying	
11.30-12		If possible some other	Freebelian occupation, or Free Play			
12-2			Free Play			
2-3	Weaving, unravel- ling or colour lay- ing	Stringing beads	Laying out shells or rings	Arranging colours	Bead stringing or paper-folding	
3-3.30			Free Play or Finger Games			
3.30-4			Coffee and Bread			
4-5 or 6.			Free Play			



(4) *Time-table of an Ecole Infantine.***PLAN DE LEÇONS. (ECOLE ENFANTINE DE MALAGNOU.)***Classe d'Enfants de 6 à 7 ans.*

Heure.	Lundi.	Mardi.	Mercredi.	Vendredi. <sup>1</sup>	Samedi.
9h. à 9h.45	Causerie morale.	Calcul intuitif (1 à 10).	Poésie et chant.	Causerie (Leçons de choses).	Calcul intuitif (1 à 10).
9h.45 à 10h.15	Jeux gymnastiques (chants marches).	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.
10h.15 à 11h.	Lecture, écriture.	Lecture, écriture.	Lecture, écriture.	Lecture, écriture.	Lecture, écriture.
2h. à 2h.45	Tissage.	Piquage.	Broderie (exer. prép. à la course).	Causerie.	Découpage et Collage. <sup>2</sup>
2h.45 à 3h.15	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.
3h.15 à 4h.	Dessin.	Construction (5 me. don.).	Perles (surfaces <sup>3</sup> ou cercles).	Dessin.	Construction ou bâtonnets.

<sup>1</sup> Thursday is a holiday.<sup>2</sup> "Découpage et Collage"—paper-cutting and pasting in a book.<sup>3</sup> "Surfaces"—squares, triangles, and parallelograms in wood.*Classe d'Enfants de 5 à 6 ans.*

9h. à 9h.45	Causerie morale.	Calcul intuitif (1 à 6).	Poésie et chant.	Causerie (histoire natur.).	Calcul intuitif (1 à 6).
9h.45 à 10h.15	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.
10h.15 à 11h.	Exer. prép. de lecture et écriture.	Exer. prép. de lecture et écriture.	Exer. prép. de lecture et écriture.	Exer. prép. de lecture et écriture.	Exer. prép. de lecture et écriture.

Heure.	Lundi.	Mardi.	Mercredi.	Vendredi.	Samedi.
2h. à 2h.45	Tissage ou lattes. <sup>1</sup>	Piquage ou cercles.	Broderie.	Pliage (éléments de géométrie).	Collage ou Découpage.
2 h.45 à 3h.15	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.
3h.15 à 4h.	Dessin ou bâtonnets.	Construction (4 me. don.).	Perles ou surfaces.	Dessin.	Jeux de balles (ou surfaces).

*Classe d'Enfants de 4 à 5 ans.*

9h. à 9h.45	Causerie morale.	Calcul intuitif (1 à 3).	Poésie (exer. de langage).	Causerie (hist. natur.)	Piquage.
9h.45 à 10h.15	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.
10h.15 à 11h.	Construction (3 me. don.).	Dessin.	Construction (3 me. don.).	Bâtonnets (dessin et calcul).	Dessin.
2h. à 2h.45	Tissage ou lattes. <sup>1</sup>	Bâtonnets.	Perles.	Jeux de boules.	Perles ou découpage.
2h.45 à 3h.15	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.
3h.15 à 4h.	Boutons et jetons. <sup>2</sup>	Jeux de balles ou boules.	Broderie.	Pliage (les éléments de géométrie).	Jeux de balles ou surfaces.

<sup>1</sup> "Tissage" is mat weaving ; "lattes" plaiting, preparatory to mat weaving.

<sup>2</sup> "Boutons" are ordinary porcelain buttons of different colours. "Jetons" are round pieces of cardboard of different colours.

*Classe d'Enfants de 3 à 4 ans.*

Heure.	Lundi.	Mardi.	Mercredi.	Vendredi.	Samedi.
9h. à 9h.45	Causerie morale.	Bâtonnets (dessin).	Poésie et chant.	Causerie.	Surface.
9h.45 à 10h.15	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.
10h.15 à 11h.	Construction.	Pliage.	Boutons et jetons.	Boutons et jetons.	Pliage.
2h. à 2h.45	Perles.	Lattes ou tissage.	Construction.	Perles.	Bâtonnets (dessin).
2h.45 à 3h.15	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.
3h.15 à 4h.	Balles.	Chaine ou perfilage.	Jeux libres ou jardinets. <sup>1</sup>	Cercles (dessin).	Boutons (jetons) cercles.

<sup>1</sup> "Jardinets" are sand-boxes.

APPENDIX E.

SPECIMEN REGULATIONS AS TO KINDERGARTEN WORK, &c.

- (1) *Directions as to the "Occupations" in the Kindergartens of the City of Zurich (May 2nd, 1907).*

1st Stage—children of from four to five.

1. Building ; (Box with 8 cubes, afterwards with 8 oblongs) after a model and free, with or without supplementary material.
2. Working with sand ; after a model and free, until the children can carry out simple designs by themselves (gardens, &c.).
3. Making paper chains, with 1 and 2 colours.
4. Stringing beads, with 1 and 2 colours.
5. Cutting out simple forms.
6. Plaiting (eventually).
7. Paper sticking ; chains of rings, simple rosettes, &c.
8. Figure laying, with square tablets ; after a model and free.
9. Stick laying (eventually).
10. Making patterns with porcelain buttons, &c., after a model, a drawing and free.

2nd Stage—children of from five to six years.

1. Building with cubes and oblongs (16 pieces), after a model and free, with or without supplementary material.
2. Working with sand, for the most part unaided.
3. Paper chains, with 2 and 3 colours.
4. Bead stringing, single and double chains.
5. Cutting out.
6. Plaiting.
7. Figure laying with squares and triangles ; after a model and free.
8. Figure laying with iron sticks and semi-circles (prototype) after a model and free.
9. Figure laying with peas, porcelain buttons, &c., after a model, a drawing and free.
10. Free drawing with chalk, blacklead or coloured pencil.
11. Clay-modelling (optional).
12. Paper-folding, from squares and rectangles (optional).
13. Paper sticking and cutting out (optional).

For both stages.

1. Walks and occupations in the open-air, as often as the weather allows.
2. Games ; action games, ball and nine-pin games, imitation games, guessing games.
3. Short songs and verses (Book "*Spiel-und Liedersammlung für Kindergärten*").
4. Storytelling.

## (2) Programme of the Ecoles Infantines in Geneva (from the Bulletin de Semaine)

DIVISION INFÉRIEURE.  
Enfants de 3 à 6 ans.*Enseignement intuitif au moyen du matériel Froebel.**Causeries morales.*—Simple récits destinés à contribuer au développement moral et éducatif de l'enfant, et à lui donner de bonnes habitudes.*Leçons de choses.*—Causeries ayant pour but de faire connaître à l'enfant les choses, plantes ou animaux qui l'entourent. De 3 à 4 ans, la causerie morale et la leçon de choses devront se fondre en un seul récit.*Langue Maternelle.*—Exercices de langage qui amèneront l'enfant, soit à reproduire exactement des mots et des phrases simples, soit à lui faire trouver des mots ou des phrases simples, les exercices seront fait surtout à la suite des causeries et des leçons de choses.*Écriture.*—Préparation à l'écriture par le dessin.*Arithmétique.*—Préparation au calcul au moyen du matériel Froebel. Calcul jusqu' à 6. Partage de l'entier en moitiés et quarts.*Géométrie.*—Notions géométriques élémentaires au moyen du matériel Froebel.*Dessin.*—1<sup>re</sup> année.—Les enfants sont préparés au dessin au moyen du matériel Froebel.*2<sup>me</sup> année.*—Premiers essais de dessin. L'élève forme sur l'ardoise pointée des rangées en disposant les cubes du 2<sup>me</sup> don, les petites surfaces ou les bâtonnets. LesDIVISION SUPÉRIEURE.  
Enfants de 6 à 7 ans.*Enseignement intuitif au moyen du matériel Froebel.**Causeries morales.*—Récits dont le but essentiel est de développer chez l'enfant les sentiments affectifs, la conscience, l'amour du travail et du devoir. Le texte des autres leçons sera tiré de la causerie morale, qui, chaque semaine, donnera ainsi une certaine unité à l'enseignement.*Leçons de choses.*—Récits entretiens ou causeries dans lesquelles on donnera à l'enfant, en les mettant à sa portée les notions élémentaires scientifiques sur les choses, plantes ou animaux de son pays.

La leçon de choses aura pour but de développer chez l'enfant l'esprit d'observation, la réflexion et le jugement.

*Langue Maternelle.*—Préparation à la lecture par des exercices d'analyse et de décomposition au moyen desquels l'enfant apprend à connaître et à chercher les mots, les syllabes et les sons. Étude des consonnes. Lecture spontanée de syllabes simples, mots, locutions et petites phrases faciles. Études des équivalents au point de vue de la lecture et de l'orthographe. Exercices faciles de lecture courante. Reproduction orale et écrite de mots et de phrases faciles. Petits exercices oraux de rédaction.*Écriture.*—Exercices élémentaires gradués et rythmés au crayon, de syllabes et mots faciles préparés par la lecture. Exercices préparatoires à l'encre. Moyenne.*Arithmétique.*—Calcul intuitif au moyen du matériel Froebel. Les quatre opérations jusqu' à 10. Calcul oral et écrit. Partage de l'entier en moitiés, quarts, huitièmes. Petits problèmes oraux. Numération jusqu' à 20.*Géométrie.*—Notions géométriques au moyen du matériel Froebel (point, ligne, surface, solide).*Dessin.*—4<sup>me</sup> année.—Division de la droite en 2, 4, 8, 3, 6. Application à des motifs de décoration. Combinaison de droites et de courbes. Composition. Figures géométriques, triangles. Carrés. Rectangles. Dessin d'objets usuels sans indication du relief. Dessin

DIVISION INFÉRIEURE.

Enfants de 3 à 6 ans.

rangées sont ensuite dessinées sur l'ardoise pointée.

3<sup>me</sup> année. — Continuation des exercices au moyen des cubes, des carrés et des bâtonnets. Dessin d'après le pliage. Dispositions ornementales obtenues par la combinaison de droites. Préparation au dessin contenant des courbes. Composition. Dessin de mémoire.

*Chant.* — Mélodies simples et paroles faciles. Enseignement intuitif de la mesure.

*Gymnastique.* — Movements et jeux; marches, rondes et jeux de balles.

DIVISION SUPÉRIEURE.

Enfants de 6 à 7 ans.

des lettres en caractères imprimés. Quelques essais de dessin de feuilles par le décalque des points.

*Chant.* — Exercices d'intonation. Gammes *dut.* Accord parfait. Chants à l'unison et à deux parties. Mélodies et paroles faciles.

*Gymnastique.* — Movements et jeux; marches, rondes et jeux de balles.

*Couture.* — Exercices préparatoires.

APPENDIX F.

SPECIMEN COURSES OF TRAINING.

(1) SYLLABUS OF TRAINING COURSES IN PESTALOZZI-FROEBEL HAUS I.

(*Berliner Verein für Volkerziehung*).

A.—Course of Training for Governesses and Kindergarten Teachers in the principles of Pestalozzi and Froebel.

*Subjects of Instruction.*—1. The theory of education (*Erziehungslehre*) on the basis of psychology. 2. Introduction to the works of Pestalozzi and Froebel. 3. History of Pedagogy. 4. Kindergarten theory. 5. Children's literature. 6. Health knowledge. 7. Nature Study in relation to education. 8. Theory and Practice of Education (*Unterrichtslehre*). 9. Geometry. 10. German. 11. Froebel's occupations and their carrying out. 12. Drawing. 13. Needlework. 14. Singing. 15. Gymnastics, Ball and Movement Games. 16. Practice in the Kindergarten, the Transition Class (*Vermittlungs Klasse*), the Elementary Class, and the Afternoon Home.<sup>1</sup> 17. Domestic occupations, and garden work. 18. Training in the bodily care of the child, bathing, the cooking of children's food, &c.

The theoretical instruction is for the most part in the hands of those persons who also give the practical training, or are otherwise occupied with the direction of the institution, which secures the close connection of all branches of instruction.

*Length of Course.*—1-2 years, according to the age and experience of the candidate, and the goal at which she aims. *Conditions of Admission:* The degree of preliminary education required is that of a full course Secondary School for Girls (9-10 classes).

*Time of Entry and of leaving after taking the examination:* April and October. *Fee for German Students:* 3 M. entry fee, 50 M. quarterly (to be paid in advance). For further training in the Elementary Classes, after taking the examination, the fee is 50 M. a session. A few scholarships are provided to reduce the fees, applications to be made to the Directress.

<sup>1</sup> *Nachmittagsheim* for school children, out of school hours, where instruction is given in hand-work, &c.



*For foreigners:* 3 M. entrance fee, 77·50 M. quarterly to be paid in advance.

*Objects of the Training.*—These depend on the age, capabilities, and general education of the students, and on the time spent in the institution; according to these students are trained as Governesses, or Assistants in families and Kindergartens; as Directresses (*Leiterinnen*) of small and large Kindergartens; as teachers in Kindergarten Training Institutions, for which purpose special preparation-courses are provided, if a sufficient number of students come forward possessing the requisite experience and capabilities.

*Conditions of Admission:* Production of the last school certificate, and of a certificate of health. Written consent of parents or guardians.

*Note.*—A student can only leave in April or October, after a previous six weeks' notice, otherwise the fees must be paid for the following quarter.

#### B.—Course of Training for Directresses of "Horte," Children's Homes, and such Institutions.

*Subjects of Instructions.*—(a) *Theoretical.*—Questions on the theory of education and social pedagogics, Lives and works of the great Educators, Children's Literature, the History of Civilisation, Hygiene in relation to the care of children, Nature Knowledge, Singing and Movement-games, Visits to Charitable and Social Institutions.

(b) *Practical.*—Cooking children's food, simple house-work, needle-work (darning, patching, simple cutting-out, machine sewing), the care of plants, the bodily care of children. Froebel's occupations and the making of toys, instruction in manual work (wood-work, pasteboard-work, book-binding, basket-work, raffa-work, brush-making, drawing), practice in the Afternoon Home for Boys and Girls

*Length of Course.*—1-1½ years, according to age and experience of candidate.

*Conditions of Admission.*—The degree of preliminary education required is that of a full course Secondary School for Girls (9-10 classes). Age not under 18, production of a health certificate, and of the last school certificate; in the case of a minor consent of parents and guardians.

*Time of Entrance.*—October.

*Fees,* quarterly 50 M. (to be paid in advance), 3 M. entrance fee.

*For foreigners.*—77·50 M. (to be paid quarterly in advance), 3 M. entrance fee.

Some Scholarships are provided to reduce the fees, applications to be made to the Directress.

#### C.—Introductory Course in educational and social work for Girls and Women.

In order to give the wives and daughters of the educated classes an opportunity of learning the principles of the educational ideas of Pestalozzi and Froebel, and of preparing themselves for social work, the Pestalozzi-Froebel House I. has for years taken occasional students (*Hospitantinnen*), for whom an individual time-table is arranged from the different courses of instruction, according to their particular wishes and needs.

Applications for less than six months will not be received. Women who are already engaged in professional work, and only desire guidance and further instruction, can, as an exception, enter for three months.

Fee 50 M., without reference to the number of lessons.

*Note.*—In the winter special courses of lectures are held on Education and Social Science, followed by discussions.

#### (2) COURSE OF TRAINING FOR KINDERPFLEGERINNEN

(*Berliner Froebel-Verein.*)

The course lasts a year. In the first six months the students attend a Kindergarten in the mornings, where they take part in the work, under the

direction of the *Kindergärtnerin*. In the second six months they spend the mornings in families under the charge of experienced housewives (*Schutzdamen*), to have practice in domestic work, and in the care of children; they receive there morning and afternoon meals.

The lessons (16 to 18 hours weekly for each division) are given in the afternoons from three o'clock onwards.

The subjects of instruction are :—

*German*.—Exercises in spelling, grammar, and style.

*Needlework*.—Knitting, crochet, darning, patching, marking linen, and machine sewing; practice in the making of blouses, aprons, children's clothes, &c.

*Froebel's Occupations*.—Drawing, weaving, building, pricking (cards), embroidery-cards, paper-folding, basket-weaving, &c.; story-telling, tales and songs for children, singing and movement-games.

*Arithmetic*.—Problems occurring in daily life.

*Theory of Education, Nature Knowledge, and Hygiene*.—Introduction to first aid in case of accidents.

### (3) REGULATIONS FOR THE TRAINING OF GIRLS AS SUPERIOR NURSERY MAIDS.

(*Verein für Volkskindergärten-Frankfurt*).

#### (i.) *Object of the Course.*

To give well recommended girls, who have completed their compulsory school education, the opportunity of making themselves familiar with the management and care of small children, so that they may be able to fulfil the duties of a superior nursery maid in a family, and at the same time receive a practical preparation for life.

#### (ii.) *Method of Training.*

1. Help with the work of the Kindergarten, under the special direction of the head-mistress.

2. Instruction in the following subjects :—

The theory of education.

Froebel's occupations.

Introduction to children's occupations and games.

Needlework.

Household work.

Singing, including finger and action games.

3. Practice in the bathing of children.

#### *Conditions of Admission.*

The training is free. The course lasts for a year. Admission can take place at any time, but a pupil can only leave either on April 1st or October 1st.

Candidates must possess the written permission of parents or guardians, a school certificate, and a certificate of health.

Before a pupil is finally admitted, further inquiries as to her suitability will be made.

#### *Rules for the Pupils.*

1. The pupil must come punctually to the Kindergarten, at the time shown on the time-table, and must stay there till at least 6 p.m.

2. She must obey the regulations of the head mistress, and fulfil the duties assigned to her conscientiously and diligently.

3. She must bring her lunch (*Frühstück*) and tea with her, and will receive midday dinner.

4. At the end of the course she will receive a certificate as to her work and behaviour.

5. Disobedience and dishonesty will be followed by instant dismissal.

6. After a sufficient period of training, satisfactorily performed, good situations can always be secured.

## (4) TRAINING-COURSE FOR KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS (ZURICH).

*German.*—Five hours (per week). Selected reading material with special regard to the history and development of the Fairy-Tale. Andersen, the Brothers Grimm, the Odyssey. German Saga. Modern Fairy-Tales—"Käthchen v. Heilbronn," by Kleist. Short original lectures. Story-telling and recitation. Essays and composition exercises.

*Education.*—Three hours.—The psychology of perception (*Anschauungs-psychologie*) and its application to education; detailed and complete treatment of the three chief divisions: recognition, feeling and will. Reading and explanation of short passages from the writings of Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Jean Paul. Short readings from the History of Education.

*Method.*—Two hours.—Theoretical and practical treatment of all the occupations of Froebel, with special attention to those which can be applied in the Kindergarten. Written treatment of themes on this subject. Relation and criticism of tales for children.

*Hygiene.*—Two hours.—Structure and functions of the organs and apparatus of the human body. Care of the same. External necessities of life: air, water, dwelling, clothing, nourishment. The care of children's health. Home sick-nursing and first-aid, with special attention to the rules for the prevention of infectious illnesses.

*Natural History.*—Two hours.—Plants and plant life in selected groups; the chief animals; excursions and discussion of the natural phenomena encountered. Great attention is paid to drawing.

*Geometry.*—One hour.—Elementary geometry with practice in geometrical drawing.

*Drawing.*—Two hours.—Perspective drawing from objects, and drawing from memory.

*Singing.*—Two hours.—Scales and practice in tune-singing. Songs for one voice and for two voices. Solo-singing. Special attention to selected children's songs. Elements of the theory of singing. Treatment of singing in the Kindergarten.

*Gymnastics.*—One hour.—Marching. Free and jumping exercises. Exercises with gymnastic apparatus. Games.

*Handwork.*—Two hours.—Preparation of collections of the occupations especially suitable for the Kindergarten, as well as of various employments for the family circle.

*Practice in the Kindergarten.*—Ten hours.—Games and occupations. Specimen lessons with criticism following.

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APPENDIX G

FORTNIGHTLY BILL OF FARE FOR THE KINDERBEWAHRANSTALT IN LEIPZIG-EUTRITZSCH.

FIRST WEEK.

Cost for 100  
Children  
Mk. pf.

Monday	Oatmeal Soup	- 12 lbs. <sup>1</sup> Oatmeal prepared with Suet and Sugar	- 5 40
Tuesday	- Beef with Rice	- 10 lbs. Meat at 70 pf. 12 lbs. Rice at 20 pf. Herbs 25 pf.	9 65
Wednesday	Carrots and Potatoes.	5 lbs. dried Carrots at 65 pf. $\frac{1}{2}$ 3tr. <sup>2</sup> Potatoes at 2.50 Mk. $1\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. Suet at 60 pf.	4 80
Thursday	- Porridge <sup>3</sup> made with Milk with Sugar and Cinnamon.	12 lbs. Oatmeal at 18 pf. $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. Sugar at 24 pf. 12 litres Milk at 18 pf. Cinnamon at 10 pf.	5 02
Friday	- Macaroni <sup>4</sup> and Beef	12 lbs. Macaroni at 37 pf. 10 lbs. Meat at 70 pf. Herbs 25 pf	11 69
Saturday	- Lentils and Sausage	20 lbs. Lentils at 18 pf. $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. Suet at 60 pf. 1 lb. Flour at 15 pf. 4 lbs. Sausage at 80 pf.	7 85
			44 41

<sup>1</sup> A German lb. is rather more than an English lb.

<sup>2</sup> 3tr. = 100 lbs. (German).

<sup>3</sup> *Milchgrues*, literally "gruel."

<sup>4</sup> *Nudeln*

SECOND WEEK.

Cost for  
100 Children  
Mk. pf.

Monday	- Rice with Raisins	12 lbs. Rice at 20 pf. $1\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. Suet at 60 pf. 2 lbs. Raisins at 40 pf.	4 10
Tuesday	- Pearl Barley with Beef.	12 lbs. Pearl Barley at 20 pf. 10 lbs. Meat at 70 pf. Herbs 25 pf.	9 65
Wednesday	Mashed Potatoes with Sausage.	1 3tr. Potatoes at 2.50 Mk. 4 lbs. Sausage at 80 pf. $1\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. Suet at 60 pf. Herbs 25 pf.	6 85
Thursday	- Oatmeal <sup>1</sup> Pudding with Beef.	12 lbs. Oatmeal at 18 pf. 10 lbs. Meat at 70 pf. Herbs 25 pf.	9 41
Friday	- Millet <sup>2</sup> cooked with Milk.	10 lbs. Millet at 15 pf. 12 litres Milk at 18 pf. $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. Sugar at 24 pf. Cinnamon 10 pf.	4 36
Saturday	- Pea Soup with Sausage.	20 lbs. Peas at 14 pf. 4 lbs. Sausage at 80 pf. $1\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. Suet at 60 pf.	6 90

41 27

<sup>1</sup> *Gries*. <sup>2</sup> *Milchhirse*.

## APPENDIX H.

## SPECIMEN REGULATIONS FOR THE KRIPPEN.

## (1) REGULATIONS FOR THE KRIPPEN IN ZURICH, 1903.

(*Schweiz. gemeinnütziger Frauenverein.*)

1. The *Krippen* are open in Summer from 6 a.m. to 8 p.m., and in Winter from 6.30 a.m. to 8 p.m. They are closed on Sundays and holidays.

2. Healthy children are received as a rule in the *Krippen* from the age of three weeks between May and October, and from the age of six weeks between November and April, till the fourth—in exceptional cases till the sixth year. They must belong to needy, but honest and industrious families, who have been settled in Zurich at least three months, and will only be admitted in cases where the Mother, owing to the small wage earned by her husband, is obliged to work out of the house. Children can also be received for a shorter or longer time in cases of illness or death.

3. The parents, foster-parents and guardians of the child to be admitted must apply at one of the *Krippen*, where they must fill up the form for admission. This form must be signed by the Member of Committee who is Superintendent for the week, and by the doctor attending the *Krippe*.

4. The birth certificate of the child must be brought at its entry into the *Krippe*; and this remains in the *Krippe* in question as long as the child is attending it. Parents must produce their written consent.

5. Every child received in the *Krippe* must be brought to the institution in a clean condition, by the Mother, or by some person to whom she has entrusted it, between 6 and 8 a.m., and fetched every evening not later than 8 p.m.

No child can remain in the *Krippe* overnight. As long as a Mother is nursing her child she should visit the *Krippe* twice daily for that purpose.

If the Mother, for any particular reason, does not intend to bring the child to the *Krippe* on a certain day, this intention should be announced if possible on the day before; in the same way information should be given if a child falls ill. If a child is not brought to the *Krippe* for eight consecutive days, a new application must be made. If a child falls ill in the *Krippe* it must be sent home at once. Every Mother is therefore obliged to give the address of the place where she works, so that she can be fetched if necessary.

The state of health of the child must be certified by the doctor of the *Krippe* when it enters and when it leaves an institution.

If a member of a family of a child attending the institution is suffering from an infectious illness, such as scarlet fever, diphtheria, measles, small-pox, whooping-cough, &c., the child must remain away until the doctor allows it to be re-admitted.

6. The fee charged is 30 cts. for one child, 50 cts. for two children. The money must be given every morning, when the child is brought, to the person in charge of the institution.

7. The *Krippen* provide all necessary food and care, as well as linen and clothing for the small children during the day, in the evening the children are dressed again in the clothes in which they are brought in the morning.

8. The Mothers or relations of the children should not remain longer than necessary in the *Krippe* for the sake of order. No presents may be given to the Head Sister, or to any of the staff. All gifts belong to the *Krippe*.

9. The relations of the children must follow the regulations of the Head Sister absolutely; complaints should be made to the President or a Member of the Committee.

10. Each *Krippe* is visited daily by the doctor connected with it.

(2) SANITARY REGULATIONS FOR THE KRIPPEN (ZURICH).

*Airing of Rooms.*—Rooms must be well aired in the morning. Care must be taken in doing so that a window is half open in the rooms. When the outer temperature is good, and the ground dry, the children are to be allowed to be out of doors. In the evening, when the children have left, windows and doors are to be opened, and bedding put to air.

*Temperature.*—14–15° R. [rather over 60° Fahrenheit]. In the evening before the children are fetched the temperature should be rather lower. In autumn, winter and spring the home clothes should be brought into the warm rooms an hour beforehand, so that the children may not catch cold through cold clothes.

*Nourishment.*—Healthy regular nourishment corresponding to the age of the child; unadulterated milk, neither sweetmeats nor cakes. An infant's head should be raised while drinking, and the child should not be incited to laugh or cry.

Bottles and mouthpieces must be cleaned according to the Sister's orders. Milk should be given to the children neither too warm nor too cold, and at regular intervals of from 2 to 3 hours.

*Cleanliness.*—The greatest cleanliness should be preserved in the *Krippe* among both children and staff. Floors must be wiped daily, and thoroughly washed once a week; this must take place in the absence of the children.

Further, no dirty linen is to be left about, or anything to cause a bad smell. Soiled bed clothes must be removed at once. Nothing wet must be left on or under the child.

Wet and soiled napkins should be placed in a copper with a lid, and no outlet.

Every time a child leaves its bed covering and counterpane must be turned down over the lower end of the bed. Bed clothes must never lie about in confusion.

Every child should have face and hands washed twice daily, and its hair twice combed.

While the children are being bathed or washed, windows and ventilators in the room in question should be shut.

Each child has its sleeping place (cot, perambulator), its spoon, pocket handkerchief and washing-cloth, and each baby its glass with mouthpiece and *zapfi*.

*Further Precautions.*—The curtains of the cots should never be quite drawn. Children should be protected from draughts, and care should be taken that the sun does not shine on their heads.

Breathing must not be hindered by the clothes, and movement as little as possible by swathing-bands.

Children should be rocked as little as possible.

Children should be as early as possible trained in habits of cleanliness, but not allowed in this connection to sit or lie too long in one position. Infants should be laid on the right and the left side in turn, with the head somewhat raised. Care should be taken that the child's arms are as far as possible outside the bed-clothes.

Children should be taken into the fresh air as much as possible.

Children should be lifted by *both arms*.

Nothing should be left in the neighbourhood of the children which might hurt them, or which they could put altogether into the mouth.

Nothing painted should be given to the children, nor anything with which they could hurt their small neighbours.

The children should be treated as kindly as possible. Care should be taken that children who like each other should sit or lie together.

The children should be allowed to sleep as long as they please.

Whenever it is observed that a child is unwell, it should be brought to the person in charge, who should inform the doctor as soon as possible, and in the meantime keep the child in her private room, apart from the other children.

## (3) SPECIMEN ACCOUNTS OF A CRÈCHE.

## (a) Average Monthly Housekeeping Expenses of a Crèche in Frankfurt :—

(24 Children in average daily attendance.)

	Mks.	pf.
Bread - - - - -	31	37
Milk - - - - -	68	26
Meat and Fish - - - - -	66	99
Eggs and butter - - - - -	16	59
Fruit, Vegetables - - - - -	13	19
Flour, sugar, groceries - - - - -	21	41
Drinks ( <i>Getränke</i> ) - - - - -	24	39
Heating and Lighting - - - - -	48	39
Washing and Water-Tax - - - - -	26	81
Small Expenses - - - - -	14	26
Total -	329	66

## (b) Yearly Expenses of a Crèche in Geneva :—

(Visited altogether by 93 Children.)

	Fr.	c.
Rent - - - - -	1,100	00
Salaries - - - - -	1,725	35
Furniture and upkeep - - - - -	164	40
Fuel - - - - -	423	70
Milk - - - - -	827	00
Bread - - - - -	260	10
Groceries - - - - -	797	40
Meat - - - - -	487	65
Vegetables, butter and eggs - - - - -	965	35
Gas - - - - -	80	70
Tips and presents - - - - -	127	00
Chemist - - - - -	5	40
Total -	6,964	05

## APPENDIX J.

## KINDERHORTE.

*Kinderhorte*, as a rule are institutions for children of school age only and so do not come strictly within the scope of this report. Some account of them may be given here, however, partly because there is a tendency in some places (e.g. Berlin) to receive quite young children in the *Kinderhorte*, partly because in other places (e.g. Switzerland), *Kinderhorte* are being started expressly for children under school age.

The object of the *Kinderhort* is to take care of children out of school hours, by providing a refuge from the street. It is open from the close of the school day till six or seven in the evening. The institution is of comparatively modern origin, the first *Hort* having been started in 1871 in Erlangen, but it is now very widely spread in Germany. An inquiry\* made by the *Berliner Mädchen-Verein* in 1904, received returns from 91 of the larger German towns giving particulars of *Horte*, from which it appeared that there were altogether in these towns 438 *Horte* visited by some 26,000 children. *Kinderhorte* are maintained by private societies established for the purpose, separate *Horte* being provided for boys and girls. They are generally unsectarian, though charitable and religious societies sometimes provide *Horte*, often in connection with other institutions, such as *Kinderbewahranstalten*. In most towns they are held in the school buildings, where rooms, free of charge, are placed at the disposal of the *Hort* Committees, by the Municipality, which in many cases further supports the *Horte* by grants of money. The *Hort* is generally under the charge of a paid *Leiter* or *Leiterin*, often a teacher, who is sometimes assisted by voluntary helpers. About 40 children are allowed to one person. In Berlin the salary of a male *Hort* teacher ranges from £26 to £50 yearly (525 - 1,000 M.) and of a female from £31 to £48, (630 - 960 M.). The children are charged in most cases a small fee (10 - 20 pf. weekly), as part payment for the food given.

In most *Horte* proceedings begin with an afternoon meal of bread and coffee, or milk; the children then prepare their lessons for the next day, and after that the rest of the time is devoted to handwork in the case of boys (woodcarving, &c.), and to needlework, sometimes cookery in the case of girls; in both cases, however, occupations are varied by games, and walks in fine weather. On half-holidays the *Horte* are open for a longer time, and in summer in many towns they form a kind of "Vacation School," being then open all day. (In Munich the Municipal Authorities take entire charge of the *Horte* during the summer holidays).

The activities of the *Horte* on the social side are many and various. Christmas festivities, and excursions in summer, visits to school baths and to swimming baths, the visiting of parents by members of the *Hort* Committees Savings Banks, the placing of children in trades and occupations as they leave school, all come within the scope of the *Hort* societies. Some *Horte* provide lending libraries for the children; others arrange for a mid-day dinner for necessitous children, and for visits to Holiday Colonies in the summer. In many cases small plots of ground are provided for gardens for the *Horte* children.

The average cost per child per year in the *Horte* supported by the *Hauptverein Kinderhorte*, Berlin, was 27 M. 36 pf.

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\* *Tabellarische Uebersicht über die deutschen Kinderhorte, zusammengestellt von Schulrat Dr. L. H. Fisher (Anlage zum Jahresbericht des Vereins Mädchenhort in Berlin für das Jahr 1904) Berlin, Rudolf Mosse, 1904.*



## APPENDIX

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### NOTES

ON THE

PROVISION MADE

FOR THE

TEACHING OF YOUNG CHILDREN

IN

FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND BRITISH COLONIES.

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FROM MATERIAL COLLECTED BY THE FROEBEL SOCIETY OF  
GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

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## APPENDIX.

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### NOTES ON THE PROVISION MADE FOR THE TEACHING OF YOUNG CHILDREN IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND BRITISH COLONIES FROM MATERIAL COLLECTED BY THE FROEBEL SOCIETY OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

The following report is based on the results of an inquiry undertaken during 1907 by the Froebel Society of Great Britain and Ireland. This inquiry was conducted by correspondence with the help of a schedule of questions drawn up by a small committee appointed by the Froebel Society. In all, 103 schedules were received in reply from various foreign countries and British Colonies. This information has been summarised under each country and preceded by a short general statement. At the end, a few typical specimen schedules have been printed in full. For purposes of comparison three schedules relating to schools in this country have been included.

#### I.—GENERAL REMARKS.

##### CHARACTER OF THE EVIDENCE.

The countries with which the evidence deals are: Austria, Denmark, Egypt, Finland, France, the German Empire, Holland, Italy, Japan, Norway, Russia, Sweden, Switzerland, the United States, and some of the British Colonies.

In drawing general conclusions from the data supplied in answer to the inquiry, the limitations of the evidence, both in nature and quantity, must be borne in mind. In the first place, written testimony, embodied in answers to printed questions, cannot have the same freshness and fulness for the investigator as is given in first-hand experience of the conditions. In the second place, the mass and character of the evidence from the different countries varied very much. In some cases only a few returns were sent, or the answers to the inquiries were merely a bare outline of the information required; in other cases, by means of a large number of returns, printed copies of regulations, programmes, etc., a very fair picture of the conditions could be realised. Hence, the summaries given under the different countries will be found to differ in fulness and exactness. Due regard being paid to the circumstances of the inquiry, we think, however, that there is an adequate basis of fact for the instituting of a comparison between the English system of education for children under seven and that in other countries.

The returns to the inquiry had reference almost exclusively to the provision made for children between three and six years of age; hence, very little information is supplied about institutions of the nature of crèches.

#### GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF INSTITUTIONS.

The data supplied may be classified under two different kinds of institution. In the first place there are those of the Day Nursery type. Instances of these are the *Kinderbewahranstalten* of the German-speaking countries, and the children's Day Nurseries of Scandinavia.

In these institutions are gathered together the young children of widows or of parents who are both of them wage earners.

At the cost to the parents of a few pence weekly, in some cases without any cost, these institutions provide shelter, warmth, nutritious food, opportunity for play free from the perils of the streets, and for rest and sleep in intervals of play. The children come at seven or eight in the morning and leave at six or seven in the evening. They are kept clean and warm, and they receive such training in the minor decencies of life, in connection with the care of the person and social behaviour, as is given naturally in a well-ordered home. Some of these nurseries receive about 40 children; some accommodate two or three hundred. In the former case the conditions approximate more nearly to the family type, and where there is adequate and intelligent supervision, the results to the children in improved health, manners and morals must be of great value to the community.

A second type of institution for young children of which information is supplied in the evidence is the Infant School or Kindergarten, with both of which we are familiar in England.

The *Ecole maternelle* of France and the Kindergarten of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the United States are examples of this type. These receive the children for a few hours daily—three, four, or five, as the case may be. Meals are not provided. The children are organised into groups according to age, and their activities are guided in certain definite directions during the whole of the school day. The staff of these institutions are not primarily nurses as in the *Kinderbewahranstalten*; they are teachers, and have generally been specially trained for the work.

A cursory glance at the evidence was sufficient to give the above-described categories of classification. Further analysis, however, showed that it was not possible to make clear lines of distinction between the two types of institution for young children. They tend in practice to blend their functions.

Many of the *Ecoles maternelles* in France, for example, while primarily places of learning and education, keep some of the children under supervision for some time before and after the ordinary school hours, and provide meals for them at a small

cost or gratuitously. In this way they combine the functions of school and day nursery.

On the other hand, many of the *Kinderbewahranstalten* of Austria-Hungary whose object is primarily to place the children under responsible care, and to free the guardian elder brother or sister for attendance in the primary school, approximate by the employment of a trained *Kindergartner*, and by the use of the Froebelian exercises during part of the day to the functions of a regular Kindergarten.

#### THE AUTHORITY RESPONSIBLE FOR THE EDUCATION OF CHILDREN UNDER SEVEN.

In England, the Infant School is part of the State primary school system; the attendance at school of children over five years of age is compulsory, and children are admitted between three and five. Most English Infant Schools, therefore, include many children under five years of age, as well as those between five and seven years.

In France also, and in the French Cantons of Switzerland, the Infant School is part of the State primary school system, and children from two to six years of age attend, though attendance below the age of six is optional and free. In no other European country, except Great Britain, is attendance at school compulsory before the age of six. Indeed, in Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, the minimum age for entering the State school is seven years. Moreover, there is no State education for children under six in most parts of the United States, nor in Japan, two other countries dealt with in this inquiry.

Nevertheless, in other countries besides England and France, public local authorities make themselves responsible for the education of children under seven years of age. In some towns in Germany, for instance in Wiesbaden and Frankfurt, there are People's Kindergartens supported in part out of municipal funds; and supervised by the town authorities. In the same way, local authorities support Kindergartens in German Switzerland, in Holland, Italy, Austria-Hungary, the United States and Japan. In Austria-Hungary the State compels each commune according to its resources to provide institutions for the education and training of young children.

Private endeavour supplements local effort, or is substituted for it, to a greater or less extent in all European countries and in America. Religious bodies anxious to give instruction in their particular tenets, lay associations anxious for the propaganda of Kindergarten principles and methods or interested in social amelioration, have established and support Kindergartens or Children's Nurseries in Scandinavia, Holland, the German-speaking countries, Italy, and the United States.

It is impossible to tell from the returns sent, what proportion of the child population under seven in any country is receiving instruction or training in Infant Schools, Kindergartens, or

Child Nurseries. In certain cases, however—*e.g.*, Austria-Hungary, the United States and Japan, statistics were obtainable, and will be found in the special reports for each country.

#### CURRICULUM OF WORK FOLLOWED.

Children under five in the English infant school often receive instruction in the beginnings of reading, writing and number, and the larger part of the school work of children above this age consists of instruction in these subjects, while only a relatively small part of the time is devoted to talks about animals and flowers, story-telling, hand-work, singing and exercises in language. In going through the evidence furnished by the returns, we find that nearly all other countries differ entirely from the common English practice in this matter.

In Norway, Sweden, and Denmark the children do not receive formal instruction until they enter the primary school at seven years of age.

In Germany, German Switzerland, Austria, Italy, Finland, Japan, and the United States, children do not enter the State primary school till six years of age, and in the public or private Kindergartens or other institutions for children under this age there is no instruction given in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Consequently, the children in these countries are not taught to count, to add or subtract, to read or write until they are six years of age. In France and French Switzerland the children between five and six years of age learn the elements of reading, writing and number, and preliminary exercises in reading and counting also appear on some of the time-tables from Holland. There is no attempt made in these countries, however, to teach children under five to read, write, or perform exercises in number.

If we drop out all reading, writing, and number work from the time-tables of the children under six or seven years of age, the problem is how to fill these hours with activities appropriate to the needs and aptitudes of such children. How this is done can be discovered from the special reports given under each country.

It will be seen that there is always a good deal of hand-work. Most of this consists of the traditional Froebelian occupations—building with the cubes, weaving in paper or with laths, laying tablets, paper-folding, embroidery, pea-work, clay-modelling, etc. Organised play, story telling, and talks about the children's experiences fill up the intervals between the manual exercises.

It is a matter for regret that the returns do not give more detailed account of the actual work done. One or two conclusions can, however, be safely drawn.

Certain forms of hand-work—*e.g.*, pricking, cardboard embroidery, fine weaving, and the drawing of stereotyped patterns on squared paper, are still persisted in to a large extent,

although physiological research shows that they may produce eye-strain while they demand a finer muscular adjustment in arm and hand than the young child's physical development allows. On the other hand, clay-modelling does not always occur, while modern exercises, like brush drawing and free-arm drawing, which are becoming more common in our progressive infant schools, are rarely mentioned in the schedules.

#### SIZE OF THE CLASSES.

According to the Annual Report of the Board for 1906-7, the proportion of teachers to the number of children in average attendance continues to increase. Nevertheless, it is no uncommon thing for a teacher to have 60 or 70 children of five to six years of age under her charge. Judging from the evidence supplied in answer to this inquiry, children under six years of age are usually organised in classes smaller than those often found in the English infant school.

In Paris there are evidently, however, classes of 55, 60, and 70 children under one teacher, though there are a larger number quoted as containing 40 and 45 children. In Wurtemberg there are said to be 2,573 children in the Kindergartens under 33 teachers; this would give an average of over 70 to each class. In Holland, the classes given in the schedules contain generally 40 or 45 children. There is only one instance from Switzerland where the number exceeds 40. In the schedules from Austria there are examples of classes containing 50 and 55 children, but these seem to be exceptions to the general rule. From Finland the numbers given are 24 to 30, from the United States 24 to 30. In Japan, the maximum number of young children in a class is 40.

#### PROVISION FOR PLAY.

According to the English Code, the period for recreation in a session of one and a half or two hours' secular instruction for children under five years of age must be fifteen minutes in duration, and may be extended to half an hour; for children over five years of age the interval must be ten minutes. The time given to free play in most of the foreign schools and Kindergartens is, however, longer than this. In the French *Ecoles maternelles* half an hour is given to all the children in both morning and afternoon sessions, making a total of one hour per day. In one school at The Hague given in the returns, there are 11 hours' play a week, while another schedule from the same town explains the absence of a time-table for the summer season on the ground that most of the day is spent in the garden at play.

In some of the German-Swiss Kindergartens the ordinary routine is often suspended in the fine weather, and the children ramble in a neighbouring wood. Again, according to some of the Austrian schedules the children are taught in the garden

on fine spring and summer days, or they play all the afternoon in the garden.

There is, as a rule, in the American Kindergartens only a morning session of two and a half or three hours; in this case the interval for free play is generally fifteen minutes.

In the French schools, besides the tree-planted playground, there seems generally to be a covered portion with low benches where the children can rest when tired of unrestrained movement. In the returns from the Dutch, German, Austrian, Finnish and American Kindergartens, there are frequent references to a playroom, with low benches round the walls. In many cases there is in addition a garden or playground. For example, one of the newer schools in Rotterdam has six classrooms, two playrooms, and two playgrounds, one of which is covered. Another school in Amsterdam has seven classrooms, two playrooms, and a spacious playground planted with trees. In many of the German and Austrian Kindergartens of which particulars are supplied, there is usually a playroom. In some of the smaller Kindergartens, where there is only one room, it is expressly stated that one half is clear for play. A new school in Finland for 200 children has a playroom in addition to the four classrooms. Such a liberal recognition of the child's need of play as is afforded in some of the newer schools quoted above is presumably not to be accepted as typical of the general conditions in these countries; the instances to which reference is made serve, however, to show that public opinion tends more and more to regard the place of education for little children as a nursery rather than as a school, properly so called.

One excellent feature of many of the Kindergartens in the German-speaking countries is the large sand-pile in the garden or playground. To add to the children's pleasures, there are often also spades and pails. Other toys are frequently enumerated for use in the playroom or playground—*e.g.*, balls, dolls, skipping-ropes, etc. It is also in the schedules from the German-speaking countries that mention is made of the school garden as serving other purposes than those of a playground. Sometimes a part, occasionally the half, of the whole space is planted with flowers, etc., while the sowing, watering, and tending of the plants are done by the children in common. Several of the schedules mention that each child has a small plot for himself.

#### PROVISION FOR MEALS AND BATHING.

According to the evidence, the French schools make the most systematic attempt to solve the problem of feeding the hungry children. The money furnished by the *Caisse des Ecoles* is drawn from a fund which must be raised in every school district, and which is composed partly of voluntary subscriptions, and partly of grants from the local educational authorities and the State. By means of this fund, boots, clothing, and free meals are supplied to the needy children. The municipal authorities and voluntary helpers co-operate in the administration of this



fund. Kitchens are attached to each school, and in some instances there is a dining-room. Where there is no special room provided, the meal is taken in the covered playground, or in one of the classrooms. The cost for a meal of soup and vegetables or of meat and vegetables to those who can afford to pay is 10, 15, or 20 centimes.

According to some of the schedules from Amsterdam and Rotterdam, the children who live at a distance bring their midday meal, but are given a glass of boiled milk. Those who can do so pay, but to others it is given without payment. In some of the German Kindergartens, for example in those in Wiesbaden, milk and bread are supplied for the morning lunch at the cost of about  $\frac{1}{4}$ d., while dinner is provided for 1d. to those who remain at school. In Hamburg and Mainz the children bring bread for the morning lunch, and the school supplies milk. In the Day Nurseries in the Scandinavian countries, one hot meal is generally provided in the middle of the day, and bread and butter and milk, or porridge and milk, at other times; for this a small payment is made.

There does not seem to be much provision for washing or bathing other than the ordinary lavatory accommodation with which we are familiar in our own schools.

In the Wiesbaden Kindergarten there is a bathroom with five baths, where in summer five or six children are bathed daily. The returns from Frankfurt also mention a bathroom and bath. The new school in Finland already referred to, besides class and play-rooms, has a kitchen and bathroom. Bathrooms are also annexed to the Kindergartens in the crowded quarters of Chicago. Even in Japan, the land of the hot bath, only one schedule mentions a bathing tank in which the children bathe on Saturday. These instances seem to be isolated cases rather than typical of what are the prevailing conditions in the various countries.

One very useful institution in the *Ecole maternelle* of France is the *femme de service*. She supervises the children before and after school hours, helps in giving them their dinner, and superintends them in the lavatories. In the German Kindergartens there is often also a *Wärterin* (nursemaid), whose functions are similar.

## II.—SUMMARY OF INFORMATION SUPPLIED ON THE SCHEDULES.

### (i).—AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

The application of Kindergarten methods to education in Austria dates back more than fifty years, when various games and occupations were introduced into an institution near Vienna for mentally defective children. The first private Kindergarten was established in Austria in Vienna in 1863. The first training course for Kindergarten teachers was opened in 1868 in connection with a Jewish children's Day Nursery (*Kind-*

*bewahranstalt*). Since that time, 1,000 Kindergarten teachers certificated by the State have owed their training to this course.

In the meantime, other Kindergartens, Day Nurseries, and Training Schools were established, including among others, Kindergartens for 200 children in Trieste, founded in 1870. Poor children are here received gratuitously, supplied with a nourishing midday meal, and with boots where necessary. Every month the school doctor examines pupils, and the medicines he orders are supplied free of cost. At their reception in the Kindergarten the children are weighed and measured, so that their progress in health can be estimated.

In 1872 a State commission was appointed, and as the result a Government ordinance was passed establishing the Austrian Kindergarten system on a firm basis. Numerous Kindergartens in addition to the Day Nurseries already in existence were founded, as well as Government training courses in connection with the institutions for teachers already existing.

The result of this was that in 1904-5 there were in Vienna 72 Kindergartens, 19 established and maintained by public authorities, 37 by private associations, and 16 by private persons. Thirteen of these were free; the fees in the others varied from 1 to 8 kroner monthly (10d. to 6s. 8d.). A midday meal was supplied in 11 Kindergartens, of which four made no charge. Three of the Kindergartens were connected with training institutions for Kindergarten teachers. In these various schools there were 139 teachers, 39 being nuns; the pupils numbered 7,436 in all.

In addition, there were in Vienna 50 Day Nurseries (*Kinderbewahranstalten*) and crèches for children under three; in 43 of these the Kindergarten games had been introduced. In 38 of these a midday meal was provided; 10 of these institutions supplying it gratuitously. The average number of children attending these institutions was 5,600.

Similar organisations exist in the other chief towns and districts of Austria—*e.g.*, in Brunn, Prague, Trieste. In the school year 1902-1903 in the whole of Austria there were 77,002 children between three and six years of age in Kindergartens, and 74,110 children in the *Kinderbewahranstalten*, or in all, 6 per cent. of the total number of children in Austria between three and six years of age.

According to the above-mentioned ordinance of 1872, "the aim of the Kindergarten is to confirm and complete the home education of children under school age, so that through regulated exercise of body and mind they may be prepared for instruction in the primary school." All instruction in the ordinary school acceptation of the term is forbidden; the means of education are to be hand-work, games, singing, the training of observation and speech in connection with things and pictures, stories, verses, and easy garden work.

The children are not to be received into the Kindergarten until the beginning of the fourth year, and are not to stay

longer than the completion of the sixth year, when they are received into the primary school.

No teacher is to have more than 40 children in her charge.

The Kindergartens are to be open every day, except Sundays and festivals for two to three hours in the morning and two hours in the afternoon, but the children may be received before these hours and kept afterwards for oversight and care.

The situation of the Kindergarten must be healthy, the rooms well lighted and sufficiently spacious, and there must be either a garden or courtyard suitable for free play. The seats and tables must be in accordance with the bodily needs of the children; the tops of the tables must be marked off in squares.

The Kindergarten can be established either by public authority or by a private association, or by an individual; it may be in connection with a primary school or not, but if the Government conditions are not complied with the local education authority will close it.

The *Kinderbewahranstalten* come under similar regulations.

Other laws fix the course of instruction for those in training as Kindergarten teachers; the head teachers in the Kindergarten must possess at least the State qualification for teaching in the primary school, and show that they have been in a good Kindergarten for at least three months. Girls in the upper classes of the primary and burgher schools may, where practicable, assist in turn in the games and occupations of the Kindergarten. The head teacher of a Kindergarten may give instruction in Kindergarten practice and methods to such a girl when she has completed her school course, and can then testify to her fitness as a children's nurse.

By a law of the school authority of Lower Austria in 1892, detailed directions are given as to the hand-work to be done in the Kindergartens. Pricking, sorting seeds, bead-threading, string-work are strictly forbidden, evidently on account of the eye-strain involved. The occupations permitted are ball-play; building, stick and ring laying, drawing, clay-modelling, paper-folding; weaving, paper cutting out and pasting are allowed, provided that there is a good light and sufficient supervision on the teacher's part.

In Hungary, the Countess of Brunswick founded in 1836 an association by whose means many *Kleinkinderbewahranstalten* were established. Much later, an institution for training those who were to have the care of the children in such nurseries was founded, with a one-year's course of instruction. A further step was taken when the Central Froebel Verein was formed, which proceeded to establish a training school for Kindergarten teachers. Owing to the efforts of this latter association the institutions already in existence were remodelled on Froebelian lines.

In 1891 the then Hungarian Minister of Education laid before the Hungarian Reichstag a law which was passed by both houses and received the Royal assent, and which made provision for

the education and care of children between three and six years of age. This law ordained that children of this age whose parents are absent at work must have proper care and oversight provided for them.

For this purpose there must be two sorts of institutions established; *Bewahranstalten*, staffed with capable Kindergarten teachers, and *Asyle* (child nurseries), officered by nurses, open either all the year round, or for the summer season only.

Those Communes which contribute 30,000 kroner (about £1,250) in taxes to the State must provide Kindergartens; those whose tax contribution amount to between 20,000 and 30,000 kroner (between £830 and £1,250) must establish *Asyle* open all the year round; while those Communes whose contribution is less than this, but where provision is necessary for at least 20 children, must establish *Asyle* open for the summer season.

A Kindergarten teacher must never have more than 80 children under her charge. Where there are over 40 children, there must be, in addition, a nurse in the case of *Bewahranstalten*, and a woman servant in the case of *Asyle*. The Kindergarten system must stand in organic connection with the primary school.

As a result of the passing of this law, there were in 1904 in Hungary 233,023 children between the ages of three and six years in institutions for little children, 154,310 in *Kinderbewahranstalten*, 21,640 in refuges open all the year round, and 57,073 in refuges open in the summer only, making 21.44 per cent. of the whole number of children between these ages. There were 1,541 *Kinderbewahranstalten* and 994 refuges for children; 2,114 of these were public, and 421 were private. The teaching staff in these institutions consisted of 2,880 qualified and 1,042 non-qualified teachers or helpers, and 796 domestics. There were nine training schools with a two-years' course.

[The foregoing account is taken from "Der Kindergarten," by A. S. Fischer, the Director of the First Training School for Kindergarten Teachers in Vienna, published in 1907.]

#### *The Schedules.*

Eleven schedules were received from Vienna, Brunn, Prague, Klagenfurt, Jablonitz, Graz, etc. Six of these related to private Kindergartens, five to public ones. A private Kindergarten in Bohemia has for its chief aim the teaching of the German language to the children of Czech parents, who are described as being chiefly factory workers. This is evidently one of a number of Kindergartens and schools supported by the German School Society for the extension of the German language among some of the non-German subjects of the Austrian Empire.

Another schedule describes the Jewish *Bewahranstalt* mentioned in the preliminary account. The children are very poor, and it forms a practising ground for the training school, of which it is the annexe. Another relates to a small private Kindergarten in Vienna, which is closed for three months in the

summer, and is attended by the children of tradesmen, officials, etc., where the children pay monthly fees.

One of the schedules gives particulars of the Kindergarten organisation in Brunn. There are 38 Kindergartens in all, with one to three classes in each. Every one has a properly qualified Kindergarten teacher, and all are under the control of the municipality and the school inspector of the district. They are all free.

According to the schedules, the distinction between the *Kinderbewahranstalt* and the Kindergarten is that the former is open from seven or eight in the morning till the evening, and the latter is open for five hours daily—three in the morning and two in the afternoon.

#### *Children.*

The children differ in social condition, though they are generally described as "poor" or "very poor." In Graz there is a Kindergarten Verein which has established 11 Kindergartens. The parents of the children in five of them are described as belonging to the middle classes, in two to the artisan class, in three they are spoken of as "poor," and in one as "very poor." The classes generally contain 40 children or under; sometimes the number is greater—*e.g.*, 48, 50, 55.

#### *Staff.*

The usual qualification for teachers is to have undergone a year's course in a normal school for training Kindergarten teachers and to have passed an examination; more frequently than otherwise there seems to be a nursemaid or domestic servant who plays the same part in these schools as the *femme de service* does in the French schools. She appears to be responsible for the cleaning and heating of the rooms, as well as for the physical care of the children.

#### *Curriculum.*

From 23 to 26 hours a week seems to be allotted to organised activity. There is no instruction in reading, writing, or arithmetic in any of the schools. The morning appears to be given up to observation exercises, picture talks, or the children's narration of their experiences, the repetition of verses, and story telling. These exercises are interspersed with marching, drill, finger, ball, and circle games. There is generally an interval for lunch at about 10 o'clock. The afternoon is occupied with different forms of hand-activity, paper-folding, plaiting, building with the gifts, embroidery, stick-laying, pea-work, etc. Some of the schedules mention that the occupations are taken in systematic order throughout the year. Free-arm drawing with both hands is taken in one town, and exercises for training the colour sense. Even where there are two or three classes, and the children are graduated according to age, there is no express statement of a corresponding graduation in the activities of the

day. Clay-modelling and brush-work are not mentioned anywhere. The following is the only set time-table given:—

**Monday:**

8 to 8.30.—Assembly; games at the tables, imitation and guessing games, etc.

8.30 to 9.—Conversation—children recount experiences.

9 to 9.30.—Lunch and play.

9.30 to 10.—Marching, drill, games.

10.30 to 11.—Building and singing.

1 to 1.45.—Sewing and finger games.

2 to 3.—Circle games.

**Tuesday:**

8.30 to 9.—Observation talk.

9 to 9.15.—Manners and cleanliness talk.

9.15 to 11.—Lunch, marching, gymnastics. Drawing for the rest of the morning—i.e., till 11.

1 to 2.—Older children paper-plaiting. Younger children making paper chains. Jumping and circle games and prayers till 3.

[*The rest of the week is on the same lines.*]

*Buildings and Equipment.*

One classroom for each class is the general rule, and there is usually a playroom, with low benches all round. Sometimes, where there is only one room, it is expressly stated that one-half of it is kept clear for play. In nearly every case a garden is mentioned, a sand heap, seats, and gardening tools. Sometimes it is said that the children spend the whole day in the garden in the spring and summer; or in other cases we are told that they play all the afternoon in the garden.

Low tables and benches are the usual schoolroom equipment. Toys appropriate for both boys and girls are usually mentioned. A classroom serves as dining-room when dinner is taken. There is no information given about special arrangements for bathing, medical inspection, and gratuitous feeding of the children, though one return says that clothes are distributed at Christmas to the needy children.

(ii.)—DENMARK.

*Kindergartens.*

Children in Denmark do not go to school under six years of age, and do not learn to read and write before that time. The custom is growing, however, of sending children to the Kindergarten, though even now only a small percentage of the children of Kindergarten age attend these institutions.

There are about 50 Kindergartens in Copenhagen, and two or three in each of the other Danish towns. All these are private venture schools, sometimes attached to a school for older

children, though most of them are managed by a mistress who has had Kindergarten training, and who has one or more trained assistants. It is said that in many cases the training has not been sufficient to give a thorough comprehension of the principles of Froebel.

Whatever knowledge there is of Froebelian principles in Denmark is obtained direct from Germany. One of the schedules, for instance, gives details of a Kindergarten where the head teacher received a year's training in Dresden in the Froebel Seminar there.

Ten of the 50 Kindergartens in Copenhagen have from 20 to 30 children—the others have fewer. The children attend for three or four hours daily, and a typical time-table is as follows:—Between 9 and 10 there are singing, gymnastics and play. Between 10 and 10.45 the children recount their experiences, and there is story-telling. From 10.45 to 11.30 there is the second breakfast—the children lay the tables. Between 11.30 and 12 there is free play. Between 12 and 1 the children do hand-work. In fine weather they play for a much longer period in the garden and occupy themselves in cultivating their garden plots. There are 10 half-hours a week given to gymnastics, games and songs, five half-hours to painting, drawing from nature and modelling; one to building with the gifts, three to observation and story work, two to Sloyd. There are 26 children in this school.

Another programme is:—9 to 9.30, morning song and free play; 9.30 to 10 on alternate mornings, a story, observation exercise, repetition of verse; 10 to 10.20, the Froebel gifts; 10.20 to 11, breakfast; 11 to 12, free play, or cultivation of the garden plots; 12.15 to 12.45, Froebelian occupations. Sometimes there are excursions to the woods, or walks in the fields or by the sea-shore.

In 1899 the Danish Froebel Verein was founded for the propagation of Froebelian principles and methods in Denmark. It provides lectures and meetings during the winter for the discussion of all sorts of problems connected with the teaching of little children. The association is under the patronage of the Crown Princess of Denmark. A Froebel Seminar was founded by this association for the training of Kindergarten teachers and nurses and assistants in the children's asylums. The Seminar receives support from the State. The Froebel Verein has a branch society which establishes Kindergartens for the people in different districts in Copenhagen. These Kindergartens are jointly financed by the association, the children's payments, and contributions from the city purse. In one of these Kindergartens there is a department for the care of deaf and dumb children.

#### *Day Nurseries.*

There are no Kindergartens attached to the primary schools. For the children of the poorer classes, especially where the

mother works away from home, there are asylums, where children from three to seven years are received. There are 20 of these in Copenhagen, and most of the smaller towns have about three each. These asylums are open from 6 or 7 a.m. to 6 p.m.

The children bring bread and butter for one meal, and receive milk in the Day Nursery, together with one hot meal. The directress is called "asylum mother," and she has assistants. There are rooms both for working and playing. The children are occupied in various ways. Sometimes they are engaged in one or other of the Froebel occupations, but only such as need simple and inexpensive material. Further, the teachers engaged in these asylums have not had, as a rule, sufficient education and training to give a Froebelian education. Training students sometimes come for practice in the management of children in work and play.

In Copenhagen an asylum may contain from 100 to 200 children, and sometimes more. The children are very seldom taught reading, writing, and number. They are occupied in all sorts of hand-work, and, in the case of the bigger children, in a great deal of garden work and activities connected with the house. The children pay about 1½d. per week, and the rest of the expenditure is met by voluntary gifts and subscriptions.

About two hours daily are allowed for resting and sleeping. The little ones of three to four years have rooms specially constructed for sleeping. The bed is a sort of big box holding four children, with a mattress and a blanket in a linen case.

### (iii.)—EGYPT.

Children from three to seven years of age are educated in what are known as "Kuttabs." Some of these (the number is increasing each year) are under the direct control of the Ministry of Public Instruction, but the greater number are private, though some receive a Government grant.

Nothing in the nature of Kindergarten or hand-work is at present attempted in the "Kuttabs," though reading, writing, and arithmetic are taught. Formerly, the whole time was given to the memorising of the Koran, success in which was accompanied with exemption from liability to military conscription. An attempt is now being made in one of the girls' secondary schools to form a preparatory or Kindergarten department for the children of the middle and better classes, but the lines on which this work is conducted have nothing of a special nature about them.

There are also various schools organised by different missionary societies. The Church Missionary Society's schools at Cairo and Helwan, for the children of the middle and higher classes, have each a Kindergarten department for children from four to nine years of age, but only a limited time can be given to Kindergarten work. Drawing, pasting, pricking, and sewing, mat-weaving, sand trays, blocks, tablets, songs, stories



or games, are taken for about an hour and a half each day. The parents desire that much time shall be given to Arabic, English and embroidery.

The children attending the Egypt General Mission Girls' School at Suez belong mostly to very poor, ignorant families, and are descendants of generations of utterly uneducated and untrained people. Their ages range from four to twenty, and it has been found that the Kindergarten occupations, such as card-pricking and embroidery, mat lacing and weaving, have been most useful in training both eyes and hands of even some of the older girls, and are invaluable for the physical and mental development of the little ones. Singing with action songs is taken twice a week by all but the oldest girls, and needlework for two hours every afternoon, during one of which the smaller children are taught with Kindergarten materials.

(iv.)—FINLAND.

*General Account.*

According to the returns sent in, in answer to the inquiry, there are 30 Kindergartens in Finland, of which nine are in Helsingfors. Others (including three more in Helsingfors) are to be established this year, and will be supported by the various communes. Some of the Kindergartens have been established by the State for the children of railway officials and workmen and for other artisans.

*Children.*

The children are described as mostly "poor" and "very poor." The average number in a class varies from 20 to 40. The period spent in the Kindergarten is from three to seven years of age. There is no afternoon session, and the hours of attendance vary from 9 or 10 a.m. to 1 or 2 p.m. The newer Kindergartens, however, are said to be open all the year and in the afternoons for the poorest children.

Two of the schedules mention that there are one or two housemaids attached to these particular Kindergartens, who attend to the physical wants of the children, and are responsible for the cleaning of the school.

*Staff.*

There is a seminar in Helsingfors where the teachers are trained. The course lasts for two years. Students must be eighteen years of age at entrance, and must have been educated in a high school. The course consists principally of instruction in Kindergarten principles and methods, hygiene of children, Sloyd, and the activities and crafts of the home—a knowledge of these last is deemed necessary for all those who are to help in the education of the children of the poor. The Government

contributes an annual grant to the seminar. The head teacher in one of the Kindergartens of which particulars are given was trained at the Pestalozzi-Froebel House in Berlin.

#### *Curriculum.*

A special feature of the Finland Kindergartens seems to be the prominence given to such housekeeping activities as are possible for small children. They help in the getting ready and the clearing away of the midday meal, and in cleaning the kitchen utensils; they wash dolls, dust, sweep, and help in the care of the window flower-boxes. There is a separate room for the pursuance of the household occupations. The other activities given are the ordinary Kindergarten occupations—*e.g.*, embroidery, paper-folding, bead-threading, weaving, drawing, modelling, stick-laying, and painting. There is some observation and language work, but hand-work is most prominent.

The course is graduated according to the age of the children, and the younger ones have more free play and more movement generally than the elder. There is no reading or arithmetic given in the time-tables quoted; writing occurs in one, but what this means is not further explained. Lessons, for which the pupils are seated, last from half an hour to three-quarters.

#### *Buildings and Equipment.*

The Kindergartens are said to differ much in building and equipment; some are spaciouly constructed and well equipped, while others have not enough rooms. One Kindergarten for 60 children has two classrooms and a playroom. All the rooms in this Kindergarten are large, sunny, and well ventilated, with paintings on the walls by Finnish artists. There are 60 small tables and chairs. Besides the playroom, there is a large and sunny court with clean, fine sand, and there are balls and skipping ropes.

In another Kindergarten for 120 children, there are four classrooms, one playroom, two dining-rooms, and a kitchen. A midday meal is supplied in all the Kindergartens described in the returns; the proportion of children who partake is given in the case of one as 25 out of 60. In two of the Kindergartens scheduled there is a small bathroom. In another, all the children are expected to sleep after mid-day dinner (between 12.30 and 1). Particulars are given of a new school, where there will be play and work rooms for at least 200 children, a kitchen, bathroom and lavatory, a room for the teachers, and an excellent garden.

#### (v.)—FRANCE.

##### *General Account.*

Eleven schedules were received—one from Dijon, the remainder from Paris. All the schools referred to were

municipal and State institutions with one exception, viz., a Kindergarten pure and simple, attached to a philanthropic settlement situated in what is evidently a "slum" district in Paris. The numbers in attendance in the schools scheduled vary from 120 to 510, and the ages of the children from two years to eight and a half. Morning school, according to the returns, generally lasts two hours, from 9 to 11, and afternoon school for two and a half hours, from 1 to 3.30. Half an hour in each session is allotted to free play in the open air. The returns mention that the schools are open all day from seven or eight in the morning to six or seven in the evening, according to the season, for the children whose mothers go out to work, but the lesson hours are five hours, or, omitting recreation time, four hours per day.

#### *Children.*

The children in the *Ecoles maternelles* vary in age from two to six years, but, as several of the schedules show, there are often *Classes Infantines* attached to the *Ecoles maternelles* for the children from six to seven, or six to eight years of age.

In two schools the children are described as belonging chiefly to the "comfortable classes," but in the rest the majority are grouped as "poor," or "very poor." The classes vary in size from 32 to 70 children; apparently most of them contains from 45 to 55, children, but in one school of 500 the average number in a class is 60; in another school of 510 the average number in a class is 70; in another of 408 the average is 68.

#### *Staff.*

The staff comprises a directress, or head mistress, with as many assistants as a rule as there are classes. The qualifying certificate is the *Brevet de Capacité* for primary education; in a few cases there is mention of a special certificate implying aptitude for teaching little children. The directress, and sometimes the assistants, have the *Certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*. There is always a *femme de service*, who attends to the children's physical needs, and takes care of them before 9 and after 4.

#### *Curriculum.*

There is no formal instruction in reading, writing, and number for children under five years of age. Above this age, the time given to reading, writing, and language varies, according to the school, from four or five hours weekly to ten hours. There seems little gradation as to the number of hours given to formal instruction per week in the classes above the "babies." One hour is given to the moral talks per week—sometimes the youngest children have more. The time given to the object-lesson (*leçon de choses*) varies from one to two hours a week, but as far as one can judge there does not seem much of the

nature study work that is so rapidly increasing in English infant schools.

The hand-work, which occupies from two to four hours per week, seems to be of a somewhat old-fashioned type. Pricking and embroidery are frequently given; weaving, the folding, cutting, and mounting of paper, bead-threading, and drawing on squared paper are the most common types of hand-work mentioned. None of the returns give clay-modelling or sand-moulding, brush-work or free-arm drawing. Circle games and other forms of Kindergarten play are not as a rule specifically mentioned; simple gymnastics seem to be the more ordinary type of organised physical movement. Nothing is said, moreover, of the "story" lesson, though it may possibly be included under the term "language lesson." The following are examples of time-tables:—

I.—A SCHOOL OF 209 CHILDREN.

—	Children from 5-6 years.	—	Children from 2-5 years.
	hrs. mins.		hrs.
Reading - -	1 40 weekly	Talks - -	1½ weekly
Writing - -	1 40 "	Hand-work - -	5½ "
Arithmetic - -	0 15 "	Story - -	½ "
Recitation - -	0 30 "	Language - -	½ "
Singing - -	0 30 "	Recitation - -	½ "
Object and Moral Lessons - -	1 40 "	Organised Play	1½ "
Drawing - -	1 40 "		
Handwork - -	2 0 "		
Organised Play -	1 40 "		
1 hour 25 minutes per day are given to instruction in the various subjects. 35 minutes to hand-work.		¾ hour instruction in the various subjects given daily. 1 hour hand-work.	

II.—A SCHOOL OF 510 CHILDREN.

—	Classes Enfantines. 6-8 years.	Classes Maternelles.	
		5-6 years.	2-5 years.
	Hours.	Hours.	Hours.
Language - - -	3½ weekly	1½ weekly	1½ weekly
Recitation - -	1½ "	1½ "	1½ "
Lessons in Morals - -	1½ "	1½ "	2½ "
Reading and Writing -	4 "	5 "	—
Object Lessons - -	1½ "	2 "	1½ "
Number - - -	2½ "	1½ "	—
History and Geography -	1 "	—	—
Singing - - -	1½ "	1½ "	2½ "
Drawing - - -	1½ "	1½ "	1½ "
Hand-work - - -	2½ "	2½ "	2½ "
Games - - -	—	—	7½ "
Gymnastics - - -	1 "	1½ "	—

## III.—A SCHOOL OF 216 CHILDREN.

—	Children of 2-4 years.	—	Children of 4-6 years.
	Hours.		Hours.
Recitation -	2½ weekly	Reading and Language	4 weekly
Singing -	2½ "	Writing - - -	2½ "
Talks -	3 "	Number - - -	1½ "
Hand-work -	5 "	Recitation - - -	1½ "
Games -	7 "	Drawing - - -	1½ "
		Singing - - -	1 —
		Hand-work - - -	1½ "
		Pictures, Object Lesson	2½ "
		Games - - -	4 "

A comparison of the foregoing time-tables shows that there is considerable difference in the time allotted to the various subjects. Five hours instead of three hours twenty minutes are given to reading and writing weekly for the children between five and six years in the second school as compared with the first. There are also one and a half hours given weekly to arithmetic in the second case instead of fifteen minutes in the first. In this second school much more time is given to actual instruction than in the first. In the second school the younger children occupy in games and gymnastics the time passed by the older children in receiving formal instruction. According to a model time-table for the schools in the Seine Department, five formal lessons weekly are given in the afternoon, each of 45 minutes' duration; in the morning the object-lesson lasts for 45 minutes.

Thursday is a holiday; but some of the schools are kept open so that the children whose parents are at work may not be left without care. The Thursday classes are sometimes open all day from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m., but often only in the afternoon. Special teachers are employed by the municipality for these classes, or additional payment is given to such of the regular teachers as like to take part in the work.

Some of the schools in the poorer districts are open during the summer holidays. There is no regular work, but attractive occupations and walks fill up the time. Special teachers are employed for these vacation schools, while the ordinary teacher, if engaged on this work, receives additional payment beyond her salary.

*Buildings and Equipment.*

There are, as a rule, as many classrooms as classes; the seats and tables are of varying heights, and are generally said to be dual. There is always a playground, gravel or asphalt, with trees, and a covered portion with low benches, where, according to several returns, the *déjeuner* is taken in fine weather. Not one of the returns mentions anything about a sand pile or any material for outdoor games. One return says that there are plenty of balls, but the remainder of the toys are

made by the children themselves. A few more elaborate toys are kept specially for Thursdays. In fine weather the classes, especially those for hand-work, are held in the playground.

The meals are provided from the resources of the *Caisse des Ecoles*, and are partaken of under the supervision of the head mistress, and with the help of the *femme de service*.

The *Caisse des Ecoles* administers a fund composed partly of voluntary subscriptions and partly of grants from the local education authority and the State. The object is to provide food, clothing, and boots to the children who need them. It also provides funds for sending children into the country during the summer.

The *Caisse des Ecoles* is an institution which is found in every commune and municipal district in France, and the committees concerned in its administration always include members of the municipality as well as private donors.

Soup, minced meat, purées are the principal dishes according to the schedules. The price asked is so little, says one schedule (10 centimes), that eggs cannot be given.

Another says that meat and vegetables are generally provided. Twice a week soup is given. According to one schedule, the children bring something to drink—water or milk—which is warmed in winter at school. In summer the water is boiled.

Some of the schedules mention a dining-room, but others say that the meal when taken indoors is eaten in one of the classrooms or in the *préau* or hall. The proportion of children who take their dinner in school is not mentioned in all the schedules. One gives it as one-tenth, another as one-seventh of the total attendance. The price is variously given as 10 and 15 centimes per child. One schedule says that 20 children out of a total of 500, and another 30 to 35 out of 400, are given free meals.

All the returns speak of a lavatory with basins supplied in some cases with hot as well as cold water. One schedule describes a bathroom furnished with small baths, not large enough for the child to sit down, but where he can be washed all over standing up. This is done in the case of neglected children.

Half an hour every day is given to the supervision of the children in the lavatories under the charge of the *femme de service*. Great attention is paid to cleanliness, and hands and faces are washed both before morning and afternoon school.

There is nothing said in any of the returns of medical inspection. One schedule gives an account of the school medicine-chest, which contains remedies in case of accident or sudden indisposition.

#### (vi.)—GERMAN EMPIRE.\*

##### *General Account.*

Germany is the country where the Kindergarten originated, and where, perhaps, it is more generally developed than any-

\* For additional particulars as to Kindergartens in Germany, see Appendix C., page 281 below.

where in the world, except in the United States. Yet, judging from the schedules sent, the State has nothing to do with the development of Kindergarten education in Germany.

Fourteen returns were sent in, chiefly from Berlin, Frankfurt, Leipzig, Hamburg, and Wiesbaden.

The institutions described in them were named variously as *Kleinkinderschulen*, *Kinderbewahranstalten*, and Kindergartens. Among the returns there are examples of institutions maintained by private associations, together with examples of others maintained by the municipality, as in Frankfurt and Wiesbaden.

From Linden, in Hanover, there came particulars of a type which is evidently not uncommon in Germany. This Kindergarten belongs to some works; the payments made by the parents amount to one-third of the expenses, and the rest is contributed by the proprietors of the works. In Berlin, the Octavia Hill Verein, an association for the better housing of the poor, maintains a Kindergarten for the children of those who live in the houses under the control of the association. The Froebel Verein in Berlin maintains six Kindergartens, three for children of the middle classes, and three for the children of the poor. The Pestalozzi-Froebel House has three—two for children of workmen, and one for the middle classes.\* At Stuttgart, an association has established one for the children of the poor and lower middle class whose parents are at work away from home all day. In Breslau there are 11 Kindergartens. In Wurtemberg there are 32. In Bosenheim (Rheinhessen) there is a *Kleinkinderschule* belonging to a religious association taught by Sisters, who give religious instruction for half an hour in the morning, while the rest of the time is spent chiefly in games.

Some of the Kindergartens, or kindred institutions, are open early in the morning, at 6, 7, or 8 a.m., and are closed at 6 or 7 p.m. In others the hours are from 9 to 12 and 2 to 4. In the middle-class Kindergartens belonging to the Froebel Verein in Berlin the hours are from 9 to 1. In the Kindergartens of the Froebel Verein in Berlin the work is unbroken throughout the summer; the regular teachers have a month's holiday, and supply teachers take their place.

The following particulars are supplied about the People's Kindergarten belonging to the town of Wiesbaden:—

Children of the lower middle and working classes who are over three years and under six years of age are received irrespective of the religious opinions of the parents.

An entrance fee of 50 pfennigs (about 6d.), and a monthly fee of 50 pfennigs, is to be paid by each child. If there are several children in a family, fees in proportion are paid, and if the parents are poor, a lower fee or none at all is allowed at the discretion of the Kindergarten Commission.

The hours of instruction are from 9 to 12 a.m. and 2 to 4 p.m. In summer children may be received from 8 a.m. till 7 p.m., and in winter from 8 a.m. until 6 p.m.

\* The number has now been increased to four.

The children must be sent punctually to the Kindergarten and be clean and well clad.

Children suffering from infectious diseases cannot be received in school after recovery without a doctor's certificate, and brothers and sisters of the sick child cannot be received during his or her illness.

Milk and bread are supplied at lunch at a cost of 5 pfennigs (about  $\frac{1}{4}$ d.). Dinner can also be supplied at 10 pfennigs (1d.), and milk and bread again in the evening for 5 pfennigs.

Similar details are given with regard to the *Volkskindergärten* (People's Kindergartens) belonging to the Verein für Volkskindergarten in Frankfurt-on-Main. The People's Kindergartens offer to children between three and six years of age whose parents work away from home and are prevented from giving them care and supervision, instruction and occupation appropriate to their age. The schools are in the charge of a teacher educated in the principles and methods of Froebelian education.

The Kindergarten hours are 9 to 12 a.m. and 2 to 5 p.m. in the winter, and 8 to 12 a.m. and 2 to 5 p.m. in the summer. On Saturdays the Kindergarten is open only to noon.

The fees are from 50 pfennigs (6d.) to 2 marks (2s.) monthly, and are to be sent on the first day of the month.

The children bring 5 pfennigs daily ( $\frac{1}{4}$ d.) for milk, which is supplied at 10 a.m. and 4 p.m. Two slices of bread are also brought. The regulations with regard to the cleanliness of the children and infectious diseases are the same as in the case of Wiesbaden.

#### *Children.*

The minimum age given in the schedules is in most cases three years, and in some two years. In one case where the minimum age is three, it is said that some children are taken below this age when the mother's work compels absence from home, and if the children can speak and are clean. The leaving age is always six.

The number of children in these different types of institution varies from about 40 to 140; the average attendance is about 80.

The children are described generally as "poor" or "very poor"; sometimes the parents' callings are given in the returns—e.g., "factory worker," "railway official," "postman." In one school the mothers are much employed in field work.

#### *Staff.*

The teachers have generally had special training in Kindergarten institutions, such as that of the Froebel Verein Seminar in Berlin, one of whose objects is to train girls of the educated class as Kindergarten instructors in schools and families.

The course in this institution lasts a year, though half-yearly courses are given for the purpose of increasing the knowledge and skill of those Kindergarten teachers who are already qualified.



The training deals specially with the art and theory of education, the methods and principles of Froebel, the activities and crafts of the home, and the hygiene of the child. The students of the Seminar practise in the Kindergartens, and thus supply additional teaching staff.

The Pestalozzi-Froebel House is also a well-known Seminar for the training of Kindergarten teachers and teachers of domestic science and crafts. Frankfurt has a Seminar and three Kindergartens where the students practise.

### *Curriculum.*

According to the official regulations of the various towns, the teachers or nurses are to make the health of the children their concern, to keep them from bodily harm, to train them in order and cleanliness and Christian morals. Formal instruction in reading, writing, and calculation is forbidden. In none of the Kindergartens scheduled is instruction given in these subjects. Stories, talks about pictures, building with the gifts, weaving, paper-folding, clay-modelling, etc., are the usual activities. Work in the garden, the care of animals and plants, and various house activities are more common than in the returns from other countries.

The Froebel Verein report affirms that the Kindergarten curriculum is not regarded as something fixed, but as capable of further development in consonance with advance made in child psychology. In some cases, however, "pricking," and other occupations formerly believed to be educational but now considered harmful, are retained. In the schedules from the Hamburg Kindergartens it is said, however, that while the older Kindergarten occupations are chiefly followed, fine work is not done so much as formerly, on account of the eye strain involved. In the Frankfurt schedule visits to farms and industries are included. The schedule from the Pestalozzi-Froebel House says that it is very difficult to give a time-table, as the object of the Kindergarten is to retain the family spirit as far as possible, and this, it adds, precludes a fixed routine.

### *Buildings and Equipment.*

The classrooms are described generally as sunny and airy. There is a playground, sometimes a special playroom. Generally there are plenty of toys, and sand heaps are provided. Movable and low tables and seats are the usual equipment.

In the Wiesbaden Kindergarten there is a bathroom with five baths. In the summer five or six children are bathed daily. In the schedule from Frankfurt there is mention also of a bathroom with seven basins and a bath. In the Hamburg Kindergarten there is a special room with a mattress where children are put to bed.

In the Wiesbaden Kindergarten three meals a day are provided. In Hamburg and Mainz the children bring bread for lunch; the Kindergarten supplying milk. In the Mainz

Kindergarten, meat soup is provided three times a week, and milk rice on other days. In the Froebel Verein Kindergartens in Berlin, midday and evening meals are provided at a small cost. In the Kindergarten of the Pestalozzi-Froebel House, at Berlin, the children have milk for lunch, and dinner is provided at a cost of 10 pfennigs (1d.). In Frankfurt, as before mentioned, milk is provided at 10 a.m. and 4 p.m. at 5 pfennigs, and the children bring rolls.

For lunch in the Limmer Kindergarten the children have bread and milk in the morning, with a hot dinner at midday of soup, vegetables, and meat; in the evening, bread and milk are again provided.

(vii.)—HOLLAND.

*General Account.*

Sixteen schedules were received from Holland. Seven of these were from Amsterdam, which, according to the returns, has 110 infant schools, though none are supported by the city. In Holland the State is not responsible for the education of children below six years of age, and they are left to the initiative and care of local authorities and private associations. In Amsterdam, therefore, the infant schools were founded and are supported by philanthropic associations, or by religious bodies, or by private persons.

Seven schedules were received from Rotterdam, where there are 38 infant schools belonging to the city (29 for the children of the poor or second-class schools, and nine for the children of the comfortable classes or first-class schools), and 37 private schools. The private schools get a subsidy from the city if the teachers are well trained. In the second-class schools the children pay 3d. a week, or 1½d., or, if they are very poor, nothing at all. In the first-class schools the fees are 6d. a week. Schedules were also received from The Hague, Leyden and Utrecht, which show that these towns support infant schools. According to the returns, Leyden has three public infant schools and three private ones. The schools scheduled vary in size from 400 (the Sophie Rosenthal School in Amsterdam), where the children attending are described as "poor" and "very poor," to 25, a village school in Gelderland, partly supported by the village and partly by a society which gives £80 annually.

*Children.*

According to the returns, the children usually enter the infant school at the age of three, and leave at the age of six. Only in two schedules is the average number in a class higher than 45. Generally it is 40 or below that number. The children are usually classed as "poor" or "very poor." Four of the schedules dealing with schools marked "private" describe the children as well-to-do or in comfortable circumstances. The hours of attendance seem to be usually 9 to 12, and 2 to 4.

*Staff.*

The usual proportion is a head teacher with an assistant teacher for each class. A schedule from The Hague and another from Amsterdam mention also students from the normal school of the respective cities as practising in the infant school in question. There are generally apprentices or pupil teachers in the schools. The girls are apprenticed at the age of 14 or 15 for five years. As an instance of the character and distribution of the teaching staff, there is a school at Leyden of 350 children divided into six classes, with a head mistress, three assistants, and six pupil teachers. Further information adds that Amsterdam, Rotterdam, The Hague, Leyden, Dordrecht, and Groningen have their own training institutions for infant teachers. The certificates granted by these colleges have different values, those of The Hague and Leyden taking first rank. According to the information given, the infant schools are not always officered by women who have received a specific or indeed any training, and hence the schools are of unequal merit.

*Curriculum.*

The lesson periods are usually 30 minutes long. One schedule gives half an hour for each lesson, except in the case of paper work and modelling, in which the lessons last for 40 minutes each. In the time-tables for the older children preliminary exercises in reading are sometimes included. These are described in detail in a schedule from Rotterdam as exercises in pronunciation, exercises in developing the power of hearing, and analysis of words. The beginnings of number are also taught, sometimes in the case of children from five to six years of age. The chief activities are singing, reciting, hand-work, the various Froebelian gifts and occupations including clay-modelling, marching, and gymnastics.

In one school the disposition of the time is as follows:—

—	Children from 3 to 4 years.	—	Children from 4 to 6 years.
	Hrs.		Hrs.
Scripture - - -	1 weekly.	Scripture - - -	2½ weekly.
Recitation - - -	2½ "	Recitation and Sing- ing.	1 "
Singing - - -	2½ "	Games - - -	1 "
Drawing - - -	2½ "	Drawing and Hand- work.	15 "
Story - - -	½ "	Stories - - -	½ "
Gifts 1, 2, 3 and 4	1 each.		
Mosaic work, model- ling, lath and stick laying.	1 "		
Games - - -	2½ "		
Total - - -	20 hours.	Total - - -	20 hours.

The following is the time-table for another school:—

No. of hours spent in school weekly, 22.

The children between 3 and 4 years of age play half of the time.

The children between 4 and 5 years of age play a third of the time.

The children between 5 and 6 years of age play a quarter of the time.

The rest of the time-table is :

—	3-4 Years.	4-5 Years.	5-6 Years.
	Hours weekly.	Hours weekly.	Hours weekly.
Froebelian Gifts - -	5	4	2
Drawing - - - -	1	3	4
Singing - - - -	1½	1	2
Recitation - - - -	1	1	1
Stories from Pictures -	1	2	1
Modelling - - - -	1½	1	1
Paper Construction - -	—	3	5
Counting - - - -	—	—	½
Speech-Training - -	—	—	½
Total - - - -	11	15	17

In a school at The Hague there are 11 hours play per week; exercises for the hand 12 hours, counting one hour, story-telling one hour, singing one hour, speech-training one hour.

Another schedule from The Hague gives the time-table for the winter only, and adds that there is none for the summer, because at that season there is chiefly play in the garden. The returns from Rotterdam say that the Kindergartens are considered a great boon for the children of the poor, yet some are opposed to them because they think that the health of the children would be improved by more time being spent in the fresh air.

Some interesting notes are supplied on what are called the Leyden and Rotterdam methods of infant-school instruction. The "Leyden method" emphasises the importance of hand-work and the children doing everything as far as possible for themselves; it begins at the age of four and a half years to give a notion of quantities as preliminary to the study of arithmetic, and bases the counting exercises on small groups of objects of three and four. It postpones till the age of five preliminary exercises in reading, phonetic drill, and the phonetic analysis of words; it lays stress on the children's work in the garden, and does not give set observation lessons, but seeks to make profit out of every opportunity that occurs naturally, and especially by the actual handwork, to make the children keen observers. The Rotterdam method makes more of pictures and the teacher's words, the child is more passive, the teacher does more, the exercises in counting begin at three years of age with groups of ten objects. Formal lessons in observation are given, and

the reading exercises draw attention to the symbol rather than the sound in word analysis. In other words, the methods of Leyden seem more closely in harmony with the fundamental principle of Froebelian teaching, that the education which stimulates the child to self-activity is the best.

Curriculum of the schools which follow the method of Rotterdam. (Every exercise lasts half an hour.):

—	1st Class. 3-4 years.	2nd Class. 4-5 years.	3rd Class. 5-6 years.
	Hours a week.	Hours a week.	Hours a week.
Object Lessons - - -	2	2	3
Exercises in Language -	2	2	2
Learning short pieces of			
Poetry - - - -	2	2	2
Singing - - - -	2	2	2
Counting - - - -	1	2	2
Telling Stories - - -	2	2	2
Drawing - - - -	2	5	5
Froebel Exercises - - -	15	11	10
Play - - - -	11	11	11
Total - - - -	39	39	39

Curriculum of the schools which follow the method of Leyden:

—	1st Class. 3-4 years.	2nd Class. 4-5 years.	3rd Class. 5-6 years.
	Hours a week.	Hours a week.	Hours a week.
Froebel Exercises - - -	15	13	8
Treating of the Surround-			
ing Objects - - - -	2	2	3
Counting - - - -	—	2	2
Play - - - -	11	11	11
Telling Stories - - - -	1	1	1
Learning short pieces of			
Poetry and Singing -	4	4	4
Expression in Words and			
in Drawing - - - -	—	—	6
Drawing - - - -	6	6	4
Total - - - -	39	39	39

The school hours are from 9 to 11.45 in the morning, and from 2 to 4 in the afternoon, except Saturday afternoon, which is a holiday.

*Buildings and Equipment.*

Sometimes there are as many classrooms as classes, but very often two classes appear to occupy the same room. According to one schedule, three classes occupy each of the two rooms, but there is always one class away at play, and the other two are then quite far enough apart not to disturb each other. The equipment seems old-fashioned in some cases; *e.g.*, seats without backs, but in other cases low desks or tables with seats with backs, are provided. There is generally a playroom with toys, and a playground with a sand pile. In the newer schools more accommodation is being provided for play, and there is evidently in Holland a widely spread feeling that a young child's chief business is free movement. In Rotterdam one of the newer schools has six classrooms, two playrooms, and two playgrounds, one of which is covered. The Sophie Rosenthal School in Amsterdam has seven classrooms, two playrooms, and door-windows opening into a spacious garden with trees. In some schools without space for play there are regular school walks, or the children play in a neighbouring park or square.

The above-mentioned Sophie Rosenthal School—a school of 400 children—has a bathroom with two baths. Some of the children are washed every day, and each child has his own towel. One of the returns, describing a school where some of the children are poor, remarks that the parents would feel insulted if the children were bathed at school. According to information from Rotterdam, it is rare that a child has to be washed. Additional confirmation of the traditional Dutch cleanliness is given by several schedules, which affirm that there is no necessity for bathing accommodation. In Rotterdam the children who live at a distance from the school remain for their midday meal. They bring their lunch, but receive a tumbler of boiled milk. In the first-class schools they pay 1½d. a week for it; in the second-class schools it is given to them. One of the schedules from Amsterdam also mentions that milk is given freely to the children who dine at school.

## (viii.)—ITALY.

*General Account.*

Infant schools are established by the communes, religious or lay associations, and private individuals. The Ministry of Public Instruction supervises them, and even assists them with subsidies. It is said that 25 per cent. of the communes have established such schools, and this is considered a large proportion when it is remembered that previous to the war of 1870, about 75 per cent. of the people were illiterate. In Italy children enter the primary school at six years.

Four schedules were received from Rome. General information was given in one of them, according to which there are 157 communal *Salles d'Asile* or *Classes Infantines* in the city, with

a total of 20,297 children; 184 of the teachers belong to religious bodies, and 186 are lay persons. The children in twenty of the schools are described as belonging to the "comfortable" classes, in 102 of them the children are poor, while twenty-five of them are of mixed social character, with some poor children and some comfortably placed. The 157 schools are divided into 406 classes.

Forty-six of the *Classes Infantines* are said to follow the methods of Froebel exclusively, and five those of Aporti, while the larger number combine the methods of Froebel and Aporti.

It is difficult to say in what way these two methods differ from each other. Ferrante Aporti, according to Buisson's *Dictionnaire de Pédagogie*, was an Italian ecclesiastic born in 1791. His attention was directed to the physical, moral, and intellectual needs of little children, and, like Pestalozzi and Froebel, he was convinced that real education must begin in the cradle. A school for infants was established in Cremona in 1827, in which he attempted to put his ideas into practice. The government of Milan of that day approved of the scheme, the newspapers praised it, and the first venture was so successful that other *Salles d'Asile*, as they are called, were established all over Italy. Aporti gave the rest of his life to the support and extension of the movement, and published a manual for infant schools. According to the account given in Buisson's *Dictionnaire*, the leading principles of Aporti's method are attention paid to bodily development, longer periods of recreation than those of work, gymnastic exercises appropriate to infant age, mind culture by teaching in the concrete, which will often take the form of a game rather than work. The "object lessons" in this method, according to the above article, are less developed than in more modern days, being reduced to the simple naming and classification of things.

### *Children.*

Attendance at these schools is between the ages of three and seven years. Of the 20,297 children in attendance in the Roman *Asiles* in 1906, 7,271 are between the age of three and seven years, 11,761 between the age of four and six years, and 1,265 between the age of six and seven years. Some at least of the schools are evidently open between 8 a.m. and 4 or 6 p.m., according to the time of year, for the reception of children whose parents are absent at work. The hours of instruction seem to be from 9 to 9.30 a.m. and 1 to 3.30 p.m. in the summer, and 2.30 to 5 p.m. in the winter. Particulars are given of others where the children are not poor, and where the hours are from 10 a.m. to 1.30 p.m.

### *Curriculum.*

The time is apportioned in only one schedule sent; seven or eight hours weekly are given to repetition and object lessons,

two and a half or three hours to the gifts, seven and a half to nine hours to handwork, including drawing, and seven and a half hours to singing, games, and gymnastics. Five hours weekly are given to religious teaching. The variation in hours is in accordance with the season, the longer time in each subject being given in the summer.

One of the schedules gives an account of the Crandon Institute, a boarding and day school of 250 children, which has a Kindergarten attached. The children are from four and a half to nine years of age, and belong to the well-to-do classes. In the lowest class half an hour is given daily to learning English, and half an hour to French. Both languages are taught by means of charts, songs, etc. The rest of the time is spent in the ordinary Froebel occupations. The children from five and a half to nine years of age learn in addition to the English and French languages, reading, writing, and arithmetic. In the upper class of children from six to nine years, half of every hour is taken for either English or French.

#### *Buildings and Equipment.*

There are 406 classrooms, corresponding with the number of classes given in the general return. They are described as "large, very sunny, with a minimum of two windows," and there is a garden attached to each school. According to the special returns there are playrooms, in one case two to seven classrooms, while in another case there is a covered playground in addition to a room for meals and games. According to the general return, soup, bread, and water are provided generally in the schools.

#### (ix.)—JAPAN.

##### *General Account.*

"The Department of Education superintends the educational affairs of the country. In a similar way each local office superintends the educational affairs in its own jurisdiction, and maintains at its own expense the schools required in it, and this remark also applies to each district, municipal, or rural corporation. . . . The institutions maintained by the Department are called Government institutions, while those maintained by local, district, or corporation expenses are called public or communal schools. . . . Normal schools . . . are schools which the provincial offices are obliged to maintain in their jurisdiction. . . . The schools which a municipal or rural corporation is under obligation to maintain are primary schools."

"The first Kindergarten in Japan was established in Tokyo in 1876. The number has since been considerably increased, so that at present every province has one or more Kindergartens. . . . The number of children to be taken



into a Kindergarten is limited to 100, which number could in special circumstances be increased to 150. Each nurse has to take charge of not more than forty children."

"At the end . . . of 1901 . . . there were 264 Kindergartens throughout the country, and they comprised one Government establishment, 181 public establishments, and seventy-two private establishments." (From a chapter in "Japan at the Beginning of the Twentieth Century," compiled by the Department of Agriculture and Commerce (London, John Murray, 1904), and quoted in the Report of the U.S.A. Commissioner of Education for the year ending June 30th, 1904. Vol. 2, pp. 1252).

Ten schedules were received from Japan in answer to the inquiry; one being from a Kindergarten in Tokyo, which is governed by the Imperial Household, and is for the young children of nobles. Four give particulars of Kindergartens attached to Norman Schools (Osaka, Akashi, Kyoto, and the Higher Norman School for Women at Tokyo, a Government institution). There are four described as communal or municipal Kindergartens, while one is described as the Charity Kindergarten, Futaba, Tokyo.

#### *Children.*

The children who attend these various types of Kindergarten are mostly described as belonging to the comfortable classes, the children in the "Charity" Kindergarten at Futaba, about 120 in number, are all "poor"; in the Kindergarten attached to the Kyoto Normal School, sixty out of a total of seventy-six are "comfortably placed," twelve are poor, four are very poor; in the Communal School at Kinnamoto, out of a total of 100, seventy are described as "comfortable," thirty as "poor." In the Kindergarten attached to Tokyo-Shi Chokai common school, the 120 children marked as "comfortable" are further particularised as the children of Government officials, of those engaged in manufacturing industries, and of those engaged in mercantile pursuits.

The children of one of the Tokyo Kindergartens are, as before stated, the sons and daughters of nobles attached to the Imperial Household. There are 100 children in this last school divided into four classes.

The Kindergarten attached to the Higher Normal School, Tokyo, has 160 children, divided into two sections, the main section, 100 in number, belonging to the comfortable classes, and a "special section" containing sixty who are described as "very poor," and as having no tuition; presumably they are occupied in play all the time. The average number in a class in this school is forty. In this Kindergarten the fees for the main section are a yen and a half monthly—about 3s. In all the schools the children are between the ages of three and six, after which age they are admitted into the primary or common school.

*Staff.*

The teachers are generally graduates of a Kindergarten Normal School—this is more especially the case when the Kindergarten is attached to the training school itself. In other Kindergartens, graduates from the Higher Normal School for Women in Tokyo are members of the staff. A male principal or director seems often to be the chief member of the staff—*e.g.*, in the Communal Kindergarten, Osaka, containing 240 children, there are seven female teachers and a male principal.

The date of establishment of the Higher Normal School Kindergarten at Tokyo is given as 1876; the most recently established is the Akashi Girls' Normal School Kindergarten, which opened in 1904.

*Curriculum.*

The aims of the Kindergarten attached to the Higher Normal School for Women, Tokyo, are set forth as: the fostering of healthy physical development, the training of the senses, the formation of good habits.

The means used for training in this Kindergarten are games, singing, story-telling, and hand-work. The number of hours daily given to each is three hours for games, and one hour for singing, story-telling, and hand-work combined. The games are described as of two kinds—spontaneous play, and games played in company. The stories are fables and child stories, stories relating to the home, to society, to nature; stories strongly exciting the feeling of terror, and those representing deeds of cruelty, and the success of evil intentions are to be avoided.

The materials for hand activity are balls, blocks (cubes and oblongs), tablets, sticks, rings, string, shells, embroidery on cardboard, paper, peas, and clay. The drawing is to be done at first on slates grooved in squares; when advanced, paper is used. As children take great interest in colour, colour pencils are given for practising; when advanced, simple paints may sometimes be given. Clay modelling is to be done from May to October. Building with the blocks is used through the three classes. Tablet, stick, and ring-laying are also common to all the grades; string-laying is done by the middle grade only; paper cutting, pea work, and clay modelling belong to the middle and higher class; embroidery, paper weaving, and paper entwining to the latter. It is considered most essential to make the children act according to their own ideas and their own imaginative powers.

The other returns give curricula which are about the same—*e.g.*, in a Kindergarten attached to another normal school the programme is: Hand-work six hours, play twelve hours, singing six, language three; in yet another, games and free play occupy twenty hours a week, language three hours, hand-work eight hours, singing three.

*Buildings and Equipment.*

The Kindergarten attached to the Women's Higher Normal School, Tokyo, contains three classrooms, a large playroom, and a room in another part of the garden for the "special section" consisting of poor children. There is a spacious playground, with flower beds, a mound, a sand pile, and a merry-go-round. There is the usual equipment of blackboard, pianos, American organ, Kindergarten material, toys, etc.

In another Kindergarten of 240 children there are six classrooms, each for forty children, with twenty dual desks and seats. Two or three of the schedules mention the climbing wistaria in the playground, and the dwarf flowering trees in pots in the schoolroom. Another distinctly Japanese feature are the tea cups and tea pot in all the schools. As one schedule says, under the heading meals, "There is special provision for tea to quench the children's thirst at dinner and whenever they want"; some add "chopsticks" as a part of the meal apparatus.

One schedule says that there is a Japanese resting-room and a bed. Another that there are pillows, blankets, and cushions. In most cases there seems to be some provision of this nature. In the column headed "provision of play" in the one Kindergarten that is described as "philanthropic" in its aims and origin, we read: "Sand hills, ditch without water, six swings, a large pond with about 100 gold fish, red carp, mud turtles, etc., a chicken house, a pigeon house, and a dog, many flower beds, and in the back garden wheat, potatoes, and other things sown by the children and taken care of by them."

This same schedule is the only one that says anything about bathing arrangements—"bathing in a large tank every Saturday." In the Kindergarten for the young children of nobles, "barley tea, a decoction of roasted barley in boiling water," is provided. In the playground attached to the latter is a "sand pile, provided with spades, buckets, bamboo baskets; there is also a see-saw, a bridge, a hill, a garden, a pond." A physical examination is made of each child on its entrance into the Kindergarten of the Higher Normal School, Tokyo. This is in accordance with an ordinance issued by the Japanese Department of Education. Particulars are recorded of age, height, head and bust measurement, eye, ear, and teeth conditions, with a general description of physique.

*(x.)—NORWAY AND SWEDEN.*

The Norwegian primary school course extends from seven to fourteen years of age. The children from seven to ten years of age are said to belong to the Junior classes, as in Sweden.

In Norway the Kindergarten proper does not seem to have taken root. Particulars are given of two in Bergen, but these are for the children of parents in comfortable circumstances. The children are between four and six years, and they attend from 10 to 12.30 daily. They sing for twenty minutes daily,

and for the rest of the time are occupied in such occupations as paper-folding, bast-weaving, cardboard construction, modelling, drawing, sand-work, and simple gymnastics. In fine weather they play in a neighbouring park.

There are Day Nurseries, however, which are open from 8 a.m. to 5 p.m. for a fee of 3½d. per week. For this the children obtain a slice of bread and butter on arrival, dinner at 12, and either bread and butter and milk, or porridge and milk, when they leave. Children are admitted from three to nine years of age. They are not taught anything, except perhaps knitting in the case of the older girls. Seven is the age at which children are required to go to school, so those children who are over seven in the Day Nurseries go to the State Elementary School, and return to the nursery for dinner and after school hours. There is one Day Nursery to each parish in Bergen. If parents are too poor to pay, the children are paid for by subscription. There are also crèches for infants below three years of age.

The primary school in Sweden is essentially a Municipal or Communal institution, but it receives a State grant, and is subject to Central Government supervision. The school course begins with the completion of the seventh year, and ends with the completion of the fourteenth year. The first two years are the Infant or Junior course.

The children may go to school at the age of five, but medical opinion in Sweden is distinctly adverse to their reception in a Kindergarten below this age.

Particulars were given of two Kindergartens in Stockholm, one for the children of parents in comfortable circumstances, the other for the children of workmen. The hours of attendance are from 10 to 1, or 9 to 12. It is stated that in the People's Kindergarten, activities in connection with the home are chiefly followed, while in others, the ordinary Kindergarten occupations are more prominent. The aim is also to prepare for the lowest class in the primary school, but more exact definition of what this is, is not given.

#### (xi.)—RUSSIA.

There were two schedules from Russia, and they illustrate the different kinds of private organisation that occur in that country in relation to the education and care of little children.

One gives particulars of the Kindergarten established by the St. Petersburg Froebel Society for the children of poor workmen and servants. The other gives an account of an asylum for the young children of the workers in the Russian American India Rubber Manufactory in St. Petersburg. It was founded in 1882, and is supported entirely by the firm.

#### *Children.*

There are fifty children in the Froebel Society Kindergarten, divided into two classes of twenty-five. In one the children are

from six to seven years of age, and in the other from four to six years. The hours are from 10 a.m. to 3 p.m., with an interval from 1 to 2 p.m.

In the Asylum there are 270 children from three months to nine years. They are arranged in six classes. The lowest or cradle class contains the children from three months to three years, the next, called the "little" class, contains children from three to five; the next two classes contain the children from five to seven, and the two highest those from seven to nine years. The children arrive at 7 a.m., and remain till 6 p.m.

#### *Staff.*

Two teachers, trained at the St. Petersburg Froebel College, have charge of the Kindergarten. The staff at the Asylum consists of a matron, one Froebel Mistress, four assistants, thirteen servants, and in the cradle class girls come in to help who were formerly in the Asylum, and who are now attending the ordinary schools.

#### *Curriculum.*

Apparently there is no formal instruction in either the Kindergarten or Asylum. In the Kindergarten, from 10 to 12 a.m., the programme consists of a story or talk, gymnastics or imitative games, and hand-work connected with the story told; at 12 there is lunch and free play under the supervision of the teachers till 1. From 2 to 3 there is some kind of hand-work. The children bring their lunch, and the school supplies milk gratuitously.

In the Asylum the children are washed when they arrive, and put into clothes belonging to the Asylum. They then have a meal of tea, milk, and white bread. The older classes do cardboard work, make flowers, model with clay, draw from nature, do needlework and carpentry. They work six hours daily, and for the rest of the time they walk or play. They are also read to from books on natural history and geography, and pictures are shown to them during the reading.

The middle sections do Froebelian work, building, plaiting, modelling, drawing, singing. The children in the "little class," children from three to five years, learn to plait and embroider, and play organised games. They sleep after dinner till 2.30, and then play for the rest of the day. All the children dine at noon; the dinner consists of soup, meat, and milk pudding. Twice a day they have tea with a piece of white bread.

#### *Buildings and Equipment.*

The Kindergarten has two classrooms, and one large play-room, but no garden or playground. In fine weather the children go for a walk and play in the nearest churchyard garden. The Asylum occupies two large houses in St. Petersburg, and

has a very extensive garden, in which the children spend most of the day in summer.

(xii.)—SWITZERLAND.

*General Account.*

Seventeen schedules have been received in answer to the inquiry. Eleven of these relate to Kindergartens in German Switzerland, and six to schools in French Switzerland. Most of the returns do not refer to a specific school, but give general information with regard to the teaching, personnel, curricula, etc., of all the schools for little children in that Canton or Town.

In the French Cantons, as in France, the schools for young children form a regular part of the school system. They are known as the *Écoles Infantines*. German Switzerland follows the German arrangement, where the establishment of Kindergartens is left much to the initiative of private persons, and of private associations. Nevertheless, the Town apparently supports wholly or partially the Kindergartens, either subsidising those which belong to a religious association, or founding new schools altogether. For example, the town of Zurich, which possesses a European reputation for the excellence of its schools, possesses forty-six Kindergarten schools or classes containing 1,742 children between four and seven years, and subsidises nineteen Kindergartens belonging to religious associations. Protestant and Roman Catholic. These private Kindergartens, which contain 948 children, are called by various names, *Klein-Kinderschulen* (schools for little children), *Spieleschulen* (play schools), *Kinderbewahranstalten* (child nurseries). Again, Lucerne possesses three Kindergartens which belong to the town, and three which belong to religious bodies and are subsidised by the town. The school fees paid by the children vary, according to the means of the parents, from half a franc monthly to three francs. The Kindergartens belonging to the town in Zurich are free. The Canton of Zurich in 1900 had ninety-four Kindergartens.

The information given refers to 230 schools or classes. None of the individual schools for which there are schedules have more than 120 children; one contains forty-five, another ninety, and so on.

*Children.*

Children of varying social condition attend the schools, though in the schedules from the Canton of Glarus and the town of Basle they are said to be founded for the poor. The average number of children under one teacher varies from fifteen to forty; generally it is above thirty; only in one return do the numbers exceed forty. In the German returns the age limits

are four to six years, though in three schedules three and a-half, three, and two and a-half years are the respective ages of the youngest children. In the French returns the limits are four or five years to six or seven years, in two classes to eight years. The school day is from 9 to 11 a.m. and from 2 to 4 p.m., with no afternoon school on Wednesdays and Saturdays.

### *Staff.*

Most of the returns say definitely that the teachers have had special Kindergarten training, or possess a special diploma for teaching little children. They sometimes have a double qualification, as in the case of the town of La Chaux-de-Fonds, where the teachers in the infant schools possess the Cantonal Certificate for teaching, and also *le brevet Froebelian*.

### *Curriculum.*

German Switzerland seems to follow the custom of Germany in excluding all formal instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic from the Kindergartens. None of the returns from German Switzerland make mention of these subjects, so that apparently children under six years do not learn to read or write or calculate. The course laid down by the education authority of the town of Zurich is given in the returns. Each Kindergarten in this town is divided into grades of a year's course in each. In the lower (children from four to five years) building with gifts 3 and 4, sand-work, threading beads, making paper chains, embroidery, laying tablets, pea-work, ring laying, simple weaving, and simple stick laying, are all used. In the upper (children from five to six years), building with gifts 5 and 6, sand-work, paper chain making, embroidery, stick-laying, weaving, bead-threading, paper folding, ring laying, cutting and mounting paper, and pea-work, are recommended. Where the occupations are common to the two grades, the constructive processes are more advanced than in the lower grade. In both grades there are recitation and story-telling, and training in language in connection with the daily experience of the children. Games are arranged for, with walks in fine weather.

In German Switzerland the ordering of the time seems to be of a very informal character. The general plan appears to be the alternation of a game, drill, or some movement exercise, with a talk or hand-work. Twenty or twenty-two hours a week are passed in school.

The infant classes and schools in French Switzerland are conducted according to French ideas and customs. Hence reading, writing, and number form an integral part of the course in the *Ecoles Infantines* in French Switzerland.

The following is the programme laid down by the town of Lausanne. The children are five and six years of age, and each school is divided into two grades.

	Upper Division.	Lower Division.
Object Lessons - - - -	2 lessons weekly	2 lessons weekly.
Recitation and Singing - -	2 " "	2 " "
Reading and Exercises preparatory to reading - - - -	3 " "	1 " "
Writing - - - -	2 " "	- " "
Number - - - -	3 " "	2 " "
Drawing - - - -	4 " "	5 " "
Froebelian Occupations - -	6 " "	10 " "
Gymnastic Games - - - -	11 " "	11 " "
	33	33

The lessons are 45 minutes long; the games, half an hour long. From the town of La Chaux-de-Fonds we have the following official weekly programme:—"The teaching is essentially based on observation, the material for which is to be taken from the Kindergarten gifts and occupations, pictures, and, if possible, the object itself which is the subject of the lesson":—

Assembly - - - - -	1½ hours.
Marching - - - - -	1½ "
Games - - - - -	2 "
Recreations - - - - -	1½ "
Moral talks and object-lessons - - -	1½ "
Reading according to the phonetic method and language exercises, construction of sentences and their analysis into words, syllables and sounds - - - -	6 "
Writing, including dictation of letters, syllables, easy words, and short sentences	2½ "
Arithmetic. The four operations as far as 10. Division of whole into halves, quarters, eights; numeration as far as 20. <i>Material for number work.</i> Third and fourth gifts, cubes, rings, sticks, beads, etc. First notions of geometry by means of cubes, tablets, rings, sticks	2½ "
Singing - - - - -	½ "
Recitation of easy poetry - - - -	½ "
Drawing; combination of straight lines on chequered paper - - - -	1½ "

#### Manual Occupations.

Bead-threading - - - - -	½ "
Paper-weaving - - - - -	½ "
Pricking - - - - -	½ "
Cutting, folding, and mounting - -	1½ "
Embroidery - - - - -	½ "

Total - - - - 26 hours.



In the 18 schools in Neuchâtel the following programme is given. In the Upper class, 20 hours of instruction:—

Reading	-	-	-	-	-	5	hours.
Written arithmetic	-	-	-	-	-	2	„
Arithmetic with objects	-	-	-	-	-	2	„
Writing	-	-	-	-	-	2	„
Drawing	-	-	-	-	-	2	„
Talks	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Embroidery and sewing	-	-	-	-	-	2	„
Paper-work	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Weaving	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Bead-threading or pricking	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Singing	-	-	-	-	-	1	„

Total - - - 20 hours.

In the Lower class, 20 hours of instruction:—

Reading	-	-	-	-	-	3	hours.
Number	-	-	-	-	-	2	„
Drawing	-	-	-	-	-	2	„
Writing	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Gifts	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Talks	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Repetition	-	-	-	-	-	1½	„
Singing	-	-	-	-	-	1½	„
Paper-work	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Embroidery	-	-	-	-	-	2	„
Weaving	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Pricking	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Bead-threading or pricking	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Gymnastics	-	-	-	-	-	1	„

Total - - - 20 hours.

The following time-table is based on this programme:—

#### Lower Class.

—	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.
8-9	Assembly, &c.					
9-10	Singing Reading	Singing Reading	Singing Reading	Reading Singing	Singing Reading	Talk
10-11	Drawing	Writing Gymnastics	Gifts	Paper- work	Number	Song Gymnastics
2-3	Number	Embroidery	Paper-work	—	Drawing	—
3-4	Pricking	Embroidery	Bead thread- ing or cut- ting	—	Weaving	—

## Upper Class.

—	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.
8-9			Assembly, &c.			
9-10	Moral talk	Drawing	Number with objects	Building or written Arithmetic	Number	Natural History talks.
10-11	Reading	Reading Writing	Reading or Dictation	Reading Knitting	Paper-work	Reading and preparation for Dictation.
2-3	Embroidery or Sewing	Read-work	Weaving	—	Reading	—
3-4	Paper-work	Number Recitation Singing	Drawing	—	Writing	—

According to the schedules, in French Switzerland reading is not taught to children under five years, except apparently in the case of Neuchâtel, where three hours a week are given. Some number work is done with all the children according to these French returns.

No indication is given in any of the returns as to the correlation of topics in the different activities of the day. Brush-work and painting do not occur in the list of occupations, nor is there any mention of free-arm drawing; on the other hand, embroidery and sometimes pricking are included. Clay-modelling sometimes, but by no means always, occurs. There is no indication that the material for the story is gathered from literary sources.

*Buildings and Equipment.*

Games are included as a matter of course, and there seems to be abundant space. A playroom as well as a workroom is often included in the school building, and an open-air playground, which seems to consist of a garden with trees, seats, and a sand pile, spades and mould. The returns from the individual schools in several cases mention that the children cultivate garden plots, and spades, watering-cans, and other implements are included. The individual returns also give walks in woods and fields in the vicinity as a part of the school programme.

The schoolrooms are generally furnished with tables and low benches, with backs, graduated in size for from two or four to ten children. There is no mention of blackboards or millboards for the children's drawing. There is often a goodly list of toys, dolls, balls, skipping-ropes, etc.

Some of the returns mention special bathing arrangements. The schedule from Neuchâtel says the newest schools are equipped with douches, and there is mention here of a doctor for the schools. In La Chaux-de-Fonds, optional douche baths are provided for each child once a fortnight. Some of the returns say that the children bring bread, fruit, or chocolate

(any other sweetmeat is forbidden) for lunch. In La Chaux-de-Fonds free meals in winter are provided at midday for poor children, and bread and milk are given gratuitously to the children who need it.

(xiii.)—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

*General Account.*

Fourteen schedules were received, two of which gave accounts of the whole Kindergarten system of the particular city, and the remaining 12 related to individual Kindergartens. The information thus given seems to illustrate all the leading types of Kindergarten in the States. There is, for example, the Kindergarten (a part of the Chicago University system) attended by the children of the well-to-do and professional classes, who pay £15 annually in fees; and there is the private and proprietary Kindergarten run for private profit. There is at the other end of the social scale the Kindergarten which is the outcome of the philanthropic effort of some free Kindergarten association, or in connection with a social settlement, such as Hull House, Chicago; there is, finally, the Kindergarten which is an integral part of the public school system, supported out of public money, and housed in the ordinary primary school building.

According to the information given in the schedules, there are 100 primary schools in Cleveland, Ohio; 42 of these have Kindergartens attached. These are to be found chiefly in the poorer parts of the city, where foreigners, Germans, Irish, Poles, Hungarians, etc., live. In Brooklyn, New York, there are 22 Kindergartens all following the same plan of organisation, two of which are connected with orphan asylums, two with the Bureau of Charities, two or three belong to institutional churches, two are attached to hospitals, two to social settlements, two consist entirely of coloured children. In most of them several distinct nationalities are represented. All this shows how much the Kindergarten system in the States has been the outcome primarily of charitable effort and initiative. The article quoted below from the U.S. Bureau of Education says that the devotion of some individual woman to the needs of the education of young children, together with the co-operation of an intelligent open-minded superintendent of schools, are the forces to which in the main the public Kindergarten owes its existence.

In 1903-1904 public Kindergartens were established in 353 cities in the States, and there were 2,997 such Kindergartens containing 191,882 pupils.

*Children.*

Whatever may be the special character of the Kindergarten, the children enter at three or four years of age, and stay till

they are six. The numbers in a class in a private Kindergarten are generally 10 or 12; in the public Kindergarten they average from 24 to 30.

"In most places the number of children in each [public] Kindergarten averages from 40 to 50. There are generally two paid teachers, a principal and an assistant. Besides these, there are the students from the training schools. . . . In some places they act as assistants during their second year of study, often giving their services in return for the experience gained. In addition to these, there is, in many of the Kindergartens of our large cities, a nursemaid who is employed . . . to see that the children are clean, and to attend to their physical wants." ("The Kindergarten," by Laura Fisher. Chapter in the Report of the U.S. Commissioner of Education for the year 1903. Vol. 1. Washington. Government Printing Office.) The children attend in the public school Kindergartens for two and a half or three hours in the morning, but some returns from Cleveland, Chicago, and Buffalo report in addition an afternoon session of two hours. This afternoon session, however, is attended by a different set of children from those who come in the morning. According to the returns from Buffalo, the afternoon session children are older than those who attend in the morning, and presumably this is not an uncommon arrangement. This seems like an attempt to reconcile economy with consideration for the child's capacities, for it is evident that there is a feeling that waste is involved in leaving the rooms unoccupied every afternoon. At the same time, it is realised that the younger the child the less advisable is it that the afternoon hours shall be those that are given up to directed work and play. The returns from Chicago explain that there is a different staff for the morning and afternoon sessions. Some of the philanthropic Kindergartens—*e.g.*, the Cleveland Louise Day Nursery, keep the children from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m.

### *Staff.*

There are generally two permanent teachers, a head and an assistant; in some of the Kindergartens there are, in addition, students from a local training school (sometimes the Kindergarten itself is an adjunct of such a school), who evidently are there for the purpose of observing methods, and who give some general help.

One of the returns mentions a nursemaid who is paid by the city (Boston), and this evidently is not a unique instance. Again, according to the Boston returns, the teachers evidently visit the children's parents in the afternoon, and mothers' meetings are held apparently from time to time for the purpose of enlisting parental sympathy and co-operation, and guiding the mothers to more enlightened home control of the children. Some of the returns say that teachers have had special Kindergarten training for one or two years, and from other information

we learn that all Kindergarten teachers are trained in the local training schools which are frequently carried on by philanthropic associations.

According to other information supplied, the visiting of parents and the holding of parents' meetings is regarded generally as the regular part of the recognised work of the Kindergarten teachers, and the justification for their short hours. Parents' classes meet weekly, sometimes monthly. Addresses are given at times by medical men, who speak to the mothers on matters connected with the physical care of the children. The mothers are also shown how to use at home the appliances of the Kindergarten, and are made familiar with the songs and stories. "They are often taught simple constructive arts, basketry, clay-modelling, brush-work, and the use of natural materials, and also shown how to use the materials found in every household for artistic and constructive purposes, thus developing home occupations for the children." (Report of the U.S. Commissioner on Education for the year 1903.—*Ibid.*)

#### *Curriculum.*

The daily programme in an ordinary Kindergarten is as follows:—

9 to 9.20.—Opening exercise, singing a hymn, etc.

9.20 to 9.30.—Marching, morning talk, rhythmical movements.

9.30 to 10.—The Froebelian gifts.

10 to 10.15.—Free play.

10.15 to 10.45.—Circle games.

10.45 to 11.—Lunch.

11 to 11.10.—Story.

11.10 to 11.40.—Occupations.

11.40 to 12.—Departure.

"The morning conversation usually turns upon subjects naturally suggested by what the children have observed on their way to the Kindergarten, by the songs chosen, or by some special experience or aspect of the day.

"The gift exercises given daily comprise during the first year the use of the first, second, third, and sometimes the fourth gift, square and circular tablets, large splints used in place of sticks and rings. During the second year, or in the more advanced class, these same gifts are used for more advanced and complex exercises; in addition, triangular tablets, sticks, half-rings, the fifth gift, and sometimes the sixth gift are also introduced.

"The occupations introduced the first year are: Sand, clay, brush-work, preliminary sewing with heavy cord on cards punched with large holes, or winding worsted on cardboard; preliminary weaving with strips of cloth through frames of various kinds or slats woven through heavy cardboard and enamel cloth or linen mats, nature work, sorting exercises,

springing exercises, pasting, cutting, and some simple folding. During the second year, the same occupations are continued in more advanced forms; preliminary weaving and sewing are followed by the regular occupations of this nature; more emphasis is placed upon clay-modelling, less on sand; folding and paper modelling are introduced; systematic brush-work and linear drawing are taken up, and likewise paper-cutting, slat work, and pea-work." (Report of the U.S. Commissioner of Education for 1903.—*Ibid.*)

However the time may be allotted, there is generally a period for the story, one for "gifts," one for the occupations, and the rest of the time is spent in singing, games, etc. Some returns mention gardening, where there are facilities for it. In the returns there is not much indication of the nature work which is so assiduously followed in the States except in that from the School of Education Kindergarten, Chicago, where informal nature study is carried on in connection with walks in the garden, field and park, where materials are obtained. The cultivation of the school garden gives additional opportunity for this branch of instruction.

#### *Buildings and Equipment.*

There is usually one large room for general exercises and free play, and one smaller one. Sometimes there is only one room, which has to serve for work, free play, and games. In one case there is only one room for 80 children, divided into three groups. When the Kindergarten is in a part of the primary school building, the children share in the school playground. Low tables and chairs seem to be the ordinary equipment, and a sand table.

Bathrooms are annexed to the Kindergartens in the congested districts of Chicago. In this city no meals are provided unless the children are very needy; in that case luncheons of bread and milk are given, but not from public funds. In the Hull House Settlement Kindergarten, three meals are provided—dinner at noon, and a slighter meal at 10 a.m. and 4 p.m.

#### (xiv.)—BRITISH COLONIES.

##### *General.*

Nineteen schedules were received—two from New Zealand, six from New South Wales, and the rest from South Africa—five from Cape Colony, four from Natal, and two from the Transvaal.

The South African returns include one school established for private profit; the remainder were all public schools. Of these there were various types: the High School Kindergarten attended by children of the comfortable classes, where the children's fees are supplemented by a Government grant; the State elementary school of superior grade—*e.g.*, the Model Infant School, Durban; and the ordinary primary infant school,

with a mixture of social classes, including some children described as "poor."

The wide range of age is one of the most noteworthy facts about all these South African infant schools. The minimum age is generally four years, but there are two or three schools with children of three years of age. In all the schools there are children of eight years of age. In the Transvaal and the up-country districts of Cape Colony there are children of nine and ten years of age. The result is that there are children between three and seven years of age, three and six years, four and seven years, and seven and ten years in the same class. According to two or three of the schedules many of the South African children do not attend school till they are seven years of age, while in certain districts many come later and knowing only a little English, and some understand no language but Cape Dutch. Perhaps these circumstances account for such wide disparities of age in single classes. In some of the schools there are evidently representatives of other nationalities than Cape Dutch, South African, and British—*e.g.*, in one school, the Russian, German, Swedish, Spanish, and Greek peoples are all represented.

The returns from New South Wales also represent different types of infant school. There is the private Kindergarten for children of the wealthier classes with no financial aid from the State. The returns say that there are few of these in Australia, though their numbers are increasing. In the second place there is the infant department of the primary school, where no child is taken under four years—and in many cases not under five—the older children being seven or eight. Then there are the free Kindergartens established by philanthropic effort, but receiving as supplementary to voluntary contributions an annual subsidy from the State. The Government grant for the six Kindergartens in Sydney is £500 yearly. These philanthropic Kindergartens exist in other cities besides Sydney.

The returns from New Zealand relate to the infant departments of the primary school. There are no children under five in these schools, and the range of age is five to nine years. One of the New Zealand schedules gives particulars of a free Kindergarten near one of the State infant schools where very young children are prepared to enter the public school at five years of age. Here they are occupied in organised play and occupations from 9.30 to 12 in a "bright, cheerful hall surrounded by a nice garden."

### *Children.*

The returns from the Colonies give a clearer impression of social well-being than any other set of the schedules examined. Nevertheless, the children attending the free Kindergartens of Sydney and Wellington are spoken of as "poor" and "very poor." The average number in a class given in the New Zealand returns is 50, but in the other public schools the classes

are smaller; in South Africa they seem to vary between 30 and 45. There are two sessions daily in all the schools, except the private and high schools and the free Kindergartens. The morning session is generally two and a half or three hours; the afternoon is an hour and a half.

#### *Staff.*

The teachers generally possess a diploma from the particular colony, apparently not specially for infant teaching. In the High School Kindergartens in South Africa more than one of the head mistresses possesses the higher certificate of the National Froebel Union. The teachers in the Sydney Free Kindergartens are trained at the Sydney Kindergarten Training College, and the students from the college are distributed in the morning through the six Kindergartens in the city, thus obtaining teaching experience, and helping in the management of the children.

#### *Curriculum.*

With the exception of the free Kindergartens, instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic occurs as a matter of course, and in all the public infant schools scheduled, there are indications of the following of a set course apparently answering to Government requirements. Hence, in one school in South Africa there is a class of children, 25 in number, and varying in age from three to seven years, who have two and a half hours' reading per week, two and a half hours' writing, two and a half hours' number, one hour sewing, half an hour nature-lesson, half hour story, one hour drawing, and no other hand-work. In another school, in New Zealand, in classes where the children are between five and eight, there are 13 reading lessons weekly, nine writing, and eight number, one composition, one singing, one nature-study, one drill, two drawing, one hand-work. It does not appear that there is much opportunity here for self-expression, observation pure and simple, or for speech training.

Hence it seems as if the general procedure more closely resembles that which has obtained up to the present time in the Mother Country and in France, rather than that which is followed in the other European countries dealt with in this report.

The general duration of a lesson is half an hour.

Sometimes in the returns the nomenclature suggests methods which are not altogether consonant with modern views—*e.g.*, "object lesson," "gallery lesson," "Kindergarten" as a subject, "form and colour."

In the Sydney free Kindergartens there is no formal instruction; half an hour is given to the morning talk, when the children "recite any little piece of news or tell what is uppermost in their minds"; there are two table periods of half an hour each for gifts and occupations, and the rest of the time is



spent in singing, games and marching. According to information in the returns, the aim in these Kindergartens is to develop habits of cleanliness, order and kindness, to give opportunity for self-expression and physical activity. The children are not allowed to sit for more than 15 or 30 minutes at a time.

#### *Buildings and Equipment.*

Two or three classes are often taught in a large hall or room. The schools in the newly-acquired districts of South Africa are naturally superior in accommodation and furniture to the older schools. In one account, for example, it is stated that "the school is beautifully equipped with all the very latest improvements; there are Kindergarten tables, and chairs, a continuous blackboard round the walls, filtered water, and pottery washing basins. A garden is to be laid out according to a definite plan in 60 plots for the children's use." The schools owe much to the climate: "There is a nice open space and garden, where in the winter there is always a sunny space to be found; the days are very rare when the children have to play in the assembly hall. The climate makes it possible for much of the work and play in summer and winter to be done out of doors." The account also of a school in Pretoria with whitewashed walls, green shutters, and two large, shady stoeps (verandahs), where it is always cool in the height of summer, and where artificial warmth is only necessary for six or eight weeks in the winter, presents an attractive picture. The charity Kindergartens in Sydney are variously housed—two or three rooms in a cottage, two or three in a warehouse or a mission hall, are examples of how adjustment has been made to circumstances. The old-fashioned gallery still exists in some of the older schools, but chairs and tables or dual desks of the more modern pattern seem general. One of the returns from South Africa mentions that the Kindergarten chairs and tables in that particular school come from America. There is no provision anywhere for bathing or free meals, except in the free Kindergartens of Sydney, where milk and bread and butter are supplied if the children do not bring it. In four of these six Kindergartens there are bath tubs, but pressure is brought upon the mothers to send the children clean.

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## III.—SPECIMEN

COUNTRY : Austria.

NAME OF TOWN OR DISTRICT : Vienna.

STATE, PHILANTHROPIC, OR PRIVATE SCHOOL : Philanthropic.

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
320 Number of Classes, 3	Very poor.	Class I. 40  Class II. 70  Class III. 42	Class I. From 5 to 6 years of age.  Class II. From 4 to 5 years.  Class III. From 3 to 4 years.	The school is attached to a training college for Kindergarten teachers, and the principal of the training college is principal also of the school.  There are also 4 Kindergarteners, 1 teacher of singing, 1 nursemaid.  The students of the training college use the school as practising ground.	8.30-12	2-4	12-2 is free and 2 afternoons weekly, Wednesday and Saturday. Hence the children are on the school premises 45 hours weekly.

\* NOTE.—State : " Comfortable," " poor " or " very poor."

REMARKS.—There is a similar institution to the above in another very poor part of Vienna and The greater number of children in attendance are provided with meals. In the winter time, boots

**SCHEDULES**

URBAN OR RURAL SCHOOL : Urban.  
DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT : 1843.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.	Number and Character of Class-rooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p>Number of hours occupied in organised activity weekly is 26 :</p> <p>Observations lessons.</p> <p>Memory exercises.</p> <p>Singing.</p> <p>Story-telling.</p> <p>Games :</p> <p>    Arm, hand, and finger plays.</p> <p>    Marching.</p> <p>    Ball play.</p> <p>    Circle games.</p> <p>Froebelian occupations :</p> <p>    Building.</p> <p>    Paper-folding.</p> <p>    Stick, tablet, and seed laying.</p> <p>    Embroidery.</p> <p>    Weaving.</p> <p>    Making paper chains.</p> <p>    Drawing.</p> <p>    Cutting out paper.</p> <p>    Clay modelling.</p>	<p>1 class-room serving also as dining-room, 54 square metres in area.</p> <p>1 large class-room, half of which is used for work and half for playing Kindergarten games.</p>	<p>Benches seating 5, blackboards, teachers' tables, wash-stands, cupboards, pictures for lesson-giving.</p>	<p>1 play-room with seats all round the walls.</p> <p>A large garden, 1,350 square metres in area and with a yard.</p> <p>During the fine weather the Kindergarten games are played here.</p>	

like it supported by the Jewish Community. There are 135 children attending this other school. and clothes are also provided.

*Result of the Froebel Society's Inquiry.*

COUNTRY : France.

NAME OF TOWN OR DISTRICT : Paris.

STATE, PHILANTHROPIC, OR PRIVATE SCHOOL : Public Infant School supported by the State and the City.

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes. *	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
209 on the books.  156 present.  Number of Classes. 4	Poor working class.	1st Class. 38 2nd Class. 39 3rd Class. 47 4th Class. 32	1st Class. 6 yrs. to 5 yrs. 2nd Class. 6 yrs. to 5 yrs. 3rd Class. 5 yrs. to 2 yrs. 4th Class. 4½ yrs. to 2 yrs.	Head Mistress and 4 Assistants.  Head Mistress has the special certificate necessary for the headship of the State Infant Schools.  Two Assistants are trained, and have the Higher Certificate (Brevet Supérieur) and the professional diploma (Certificat d'aptitude pédagogique).  The other two have the elementary certificate (Brevet élémentaire) and the professional diploma.	2½ hrs.  Children arrive at 7 a.m. in the summer, and 8 a.m. in the winter.  Morning Classes from 9 till half-past 11.  Mid-day meal and recreation between 11.30 and 1.30.	2½ hrs.  Afternoon lessons from 1.30 till 4, with interval of ½ hr. for play at 2.30.  Children whose parents work from home can stay till 6 p.m. in the winter and 7 p.m. in the summer.	½ hr. each session.  ¾ hr. after the déjeuner before the afternoon session.

\* NOTE.—State : "Comfortable," "poor," or "very poor."

# Particulars of School in Paris.

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URBAN OR RURAL SCHOOL : Urban.

DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT : February 1st, 1897.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p>SECTION I.—Children from 5 to 6 years.</p> <p>Reading - - 1 hr. 40 min. weekly Writing - - - " " " Singing - - 30 min. weekly.</p> <p>The children sing and march between each lesson.</p> <p>Object lessons, language ex- ercises and moral in- struction talks - - 1 hr. 40 min. weekly. Number - - 15 min. " Drawing - - 1 hr. 40 min. " Handwork - 2 hr. " Organised play 1 hr. 40 min. " Recitation - 30 min. "</p>	<p>4 Class- rooms:—2 on the ground floor, 2 on the storey above the ground floor. 3 are well lighted. They measure respectively— 227 cubic met. 227 " 315 " 168 " Accommo- dating respec- tively—46, 49, 70 and 32 children.</p>	<p>Dual seats graduated to the size of the children.</p> <p>Teacher's desk in each class-room, teacher's black-board against the wall. A large cupboard for apparatus for lessons and play. Pic- tures on the walls, which are easily taken down and passed from one room to another.</p>	<p>There is a large tree- planted play- ground, with asphalte pave- ment. In fine weather the lessons, espe- cially the handwork, are given here. It is used also for marching, ball games, balance exer- cises, &amp;c. In the bad wea- ther the chil- dren play in the class- rooms or covered court (<i>préau</i>).</p>	<p>There are two small baths, not large enough for the child to sit down in. In these, children are washed who are ne- glected at home or who soil themselves accidentally.</p> <p>There are 6 basins in the lavatory. Here the children are washed on arriving in the morning if they are not quite clean and they pass here both before and after the mid-day meal.</p> <p>Meals are furnished at a cost of 1d. to each child.</p> <p>Eggs are not provided, but soup, meat (roast, stewed), purées, milk foods, &amp;c. The children can have as much as they like.</p> <p>Meals are served under the supervi- sion of the head mistress.</p> <p>The expense and admini- stration of the school meals are arranged for by means of the <i>Caisse des Ecoles</i>.</p> <p>The children have opportu- nity for rest in the recrea- tion times and during the di- rected games.</p>
<p>SECTION II.—Children from 2 to 5 years.</p> <p>Little talks with chil- dren - - 1 hr. 30 min. weekly. Handwork - 4 hr. 30 min. " Story lessons; object les- sons - - 30 min. " Language les- sons - - 30 min. " Recitation - 30 min. " Organised play 1 hr. 30 min. " Drawing with sticks, rings, &amp;c. - - 1 hr. "</p>	<p>The covered playground (<i>préau</i>) is 193 sq. metres in area, and is used for meals, play, gymnastic exercises, and for the chil- dren who re- main after school.</p>	<p>Each child has a little bag contain- ing his own books, &amp;c., which hangs from his own desk. This is to avoid dan- ger from in- fection.</p>	<p>The children make their own balls and other play- things. The more elabo- rate ones pos- sessed by the school are kept for the Thursday classes.</p>	
<p>In Section I., 1 hr. 25 min. are given daily to instruction, 35 min. to handwork, the rest of the time is occupied in physical exercises, amval, departure, &amp;c.</p>				
<p>In Section II., 45 min. are given daily to instruction, and 1 hr. to handwork.</p>				

COUNTRY: Prussia.

NAME OF TOWN OR DISTRICT: Berlin.

STATE, PHILANTHROPIC OR PRIVATE SCHOOL: Private; with a subsidy from the City Funds.

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
About 310 Number of Classes. 2 Primary Classes, 1 Intermediate. In the Kindergarten the children are divided into about 12 family groups.	From "Comfortable" to "very poor." School fees according to means, from 50 pfennigs to 3 marks monthly.	25 in Primary and Intermediate Classes, 10-15 in the Kindergarten family groups.	Primary Classes. 6-8 years. Intermediate Classes, 5-6 years. Children in Kindergarten, Family groups varying from 3-6 years.	Each division has a well-educated lady as mistress, and in some cases a qualified assistant. In addition, 150 students from a Seminary practise in the school under the supervision of the regular teachers.	9-12	2-4	2 half-holidays weekly (Wednesday and Saturday afternoons).

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor," or "very poor."

REMARKS.—The above school is only a part of an organisation which includes other branches, for training in domestic activities, a crèche, etc. The object in all these is to keep the family account of the daily routine in the Kindergarten in the limited space allotted.

URBAN OR RURAL SCHOOL : Urban.

DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT : 1873.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p>Length of lessons varies from 50 minutes to 20 minutes according to the age of the children. The younger the children the more time do they have for games, free activities, and for recreation.</p> <p>Primary Classes :—About 20 hours weekly. Religious teaching, reading, writing, arithmetic, geometry, lessons about the home and locality, Froebelian occupations, work in the garden, drill, singing.</p> <p>Intermediate Classes :—About 18 hours weekly. Froebelian occupations, domestic activities, work in the garden, drill, games, singing.</p> <p>Kindergarten Classes :—Free play, house activities, work in the garden, Froebelian occupations, singing, games.</p>	<p>2 Classrooms for Primary Classes, 1 for Intermediate, 5 for Kindergarten classes, a playroom and court. The large rooms have 2 windows and are about 5 by 7 by 3½ metres in size. The Kindergarten rooms are half as large. Two other Kindergarten rooms in private houses are not quite so spacious.</p>	<p>Simple and strong. Easy to clean, and for the children as far as possible to handle themselves.</p>	<p>A large play-room 9 by 18 metres. A garden sand-pile. Play-things.</p>	<p>There is a bathroom in the house, but only a limited number of the children are bathed. Provision for ordinary washing in each room. The children have milk in the morning and a mid-day meal is provided at a cost of 10 pfennigs (a penny) each. After this meal the children go to sleep.</p>

and is designed to serve as a training school for Kindergarten teachers. It also includes an institution atmosphere and life as far as possible. Hence it has been very difficult to give an adequate

*Result of the Froebel Society's Inquiry.*

COUNTRY: Holland.

STATE, PHILANTHROPIC OR PRIVATE SCHOOL: Municipal.

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
210-220 Number of Classes. 8	Majority belong to lower middle class; some are poor.	30	Class I. 7 to 6 years. Class II. 7 to 5 years. Class III. 6 to 5 years. Class IV. 5 to 4 years. Class V. 5 to 4 years. Class VI. 4 years. Class VII. 4 to 3 years. Class VIII. 4 to 3 years. The school is worked in four sections, each consisting of 2 parallel classes.	8 fully qualified teachers and 4 in process of becoming so.	8½-12	1½-4	Holiday every Saturday afternoon. 8 weeks vacation during the year.

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor," or "very poor."



NAME OF TOWN OR DISTRICT: The Hague.  
URBAN OR RURAL SCHOOL: Urban.

CURRICULUM.		CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.		Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
THE CURRICULUM.		Six.	In the four	Two play-	There are
(a) Games intended primarily to further bodily development.		This is an old school.	classrooms there are	rooms with low seats	wash basins but no bath-
(b) Observation lessons and construction work in clay and paper intended to further mental development.		The newer ones are built more in accordance with present day demands. All the rooms have large windows which admit sufficient light and air.	benches which will each seat three children. There are cupboards with teaching material in each room, a cupboard for the teacher's clothes, a large and a small table, teachers chairs, stove, pictures.	round the walls, and a cupboard with toys. There is a playground planted with fine shady trees. Part of it is formed into garden plots for the children and they plant and water and care for the gardens themselves. The rest is covered with gravel, renewed every year and here there are low benches for the children.	room. The children have a mid-day meal in the play-room where there are low tables and benches. Afterwards they play in the garden or in another playground.
(c) Froebelian gifts and occupations.					
(d) Counting; number.					
(e) Story-telling.					
(f) Singing.					
(g) Drawing.					
In summer the greater part of the time is spent in the garden in play.					
TIME-TABLE IN THE WINTER:					
CLASSES 7 AND 8.					
	M.	Tu.	W.	Th.	F. S.
9 $\frac{1}{2}$ -10	c+b	a	a	g	a a
10-10 $\frac{1}{2}$	a	c+b	c	a	b e
10 $\frac{1}{2}$ -11	f	c+b	a	c	b a
11-11 $\frac{1}{2}$	a	a	c+b	a	a c+b
2 $\frac{1}{2}$ -3	c	a	a	c+b	a
3-3 $\frac{1}{2}$	a	c		a	f
CLASSES 5 AND 6.					
	M.	Tu.	W.	Th.	F. S.
9 $\frac{1}{2}$ -10	a	g	c	a	b a
10-10 $\frac{1}{2}$	f	a	a	e	a f
10 $\frac{1}{2}$ -11	a	c	c+b	a	c c+b
11-11 $\frac{1}{2}$	c+b	a	a	e	a a
2 $\frac{1}{2}$ -3	c	a	a	a	c
3-3 $\frac{1}{2}$	a	c	c	c	a
CLASSES 3 AND 4.					
	M.	Tu.	W.	Th.	F. S.
9 $\frac{1}{2}$ -10	a	a	b+c	a	a a
10-10 $\frac{1}{2}$	c	f	b+c	e	b f
10 $\frac{1}{2}$ -11	a	a	a	a	a a
11-11 $\frac{1}{2}$	c	c	g	Paper work	c c
2 $\frac{1}{2}$ -3	c	a	c	a	g
3-3 $\frac{1}{2}$	a	c	a	b+c	a
CLASSES 1 AND 2.					
	M.	Tu.	W.	Th.	F. S.
9 $\frac{1}{2}$ -10	b+c	d	e	f	g c+i
10-10 $\frac{1}{2}$	a	a	u	a	a a
10 $\frac{1}{2}$ -11	g	f	c+b	c	b e
11-11 $\frac{1}{2}$	g	a	c+b	a	f a
2 $\frac{1}{2}$ -3	c	a	g	a	c
3-3 $\frac{1}{2}$	a	h	a	c	a

COUNTRY : Holland.

NAME OF TOWN OR DISTRICT : Rotterdam.

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon	Recreation.
240 Number of Classes, 6.	Rather comfortable, not poor.	42	3 to 6 years.	1 lady principal. 6 teachers with certificate. 6 apprentices.	9 to 12	2 to 4	1 hour per day for children aged 5 and 6.  1½ hour per day for children aged 3 and 4.  ½ hour at a time.

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor," "very poor."

REMARKS.—Rotterdam has 39 municipal infant schools, instituted by the Town Council, schools. Seven of the Municipal Schools follow the "Leyden method" (which is the one described each their own institute for training Froebel teachers. The two methods are different. The fatigues them more. Children are given elementary notions of number, at the age of 4½, by "Leyden method" begins to teach counting with small groups of 3, 4 and 5, quantities easily of 10, according to our usual notation. The "Leyden method" begins preliminary exercises in method" makes children of 3 observe the different letters and the accentuation. The for its observation lessons, but it takes advantage of every possible opportunity to make the rather than the word is a favourite means of instruction according to the "Leyden method"; (beans, carrots, etc.). The "Rotterdam method" on the other hand confines itself to pictures

URBAN OR RURAL SCHOOL : Urban.

DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT : 1890.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p>Each lesson lasts <math>\frac{1}{2}</math> hour. There are 8, 13 or 15 lessons a week in Froebel's "Gifts," according to age, the younger children having 15 lessons. The eldest children have <math>2\frac{1}{2}</math> hours a week in elementary arithmetic on experimental methods. Of other Froebel work they have different kinds of paper work, modelling once or twice a week, drawing <math>\frac{1}{2}</math> hour daily, singing <math>4\frac{1}{2}</math> hours a week, story-telling <math>1\frac{1}{2}</math> hours a week. Recitation, preliminary exercises in reading, pronunciation, development of the hearing, analysis of words, etc., connected with drawing series of pictures for the sake of giving expression to ideas. (Compositions in pictures).</p>	<p>1 playground, 3 classrooms, 2 classes in each school-room. The new schools are provided with 2 play-rooms, and 6 classrooms. This is a school of the old type.</p>	<p>In the play-room low benches. In each classroom 12 benches for 7 children each, 2 blackboards, tables and chairs, cupboards, stove, etc.</p>	<p>1 playroom, with plenty of toys, covered playground, large garden.</p>	<p>1 lavatory.</p>

of which 30 are for the very poor and 9 for the well-to-do children. There are also 37 private here); the 32 other schools follow the "Rotterdam method." Leyden and Rotterdam have "Rotterdam method" is more that of lecturing to the children, and consequently the "Leyden method"; this is done at the age of 3 by the "Rotterdam method." The grasped by the children. The "Rotterdam method" takes the child at once as far as groups reading, pronunciation and the phonetic analysis of sounds at the age of 5; the "Rotterdam" "Leyden method" never confines itself to a single object, whether a picture or a real thing, little ones good observers, especially by means of drawing and modelling. The deed, the action garden-work is done, sowing, tending the young plants, gathering and eating the produce and instruction by the teacher.

*Result of the Froebel Society's Inquiry.*

COUNTRY : Holland.

NAME OF TOWN OR DISTRICT : Leyden.

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers, with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
350	$\frac{2}{3}$ are poor	50	3 - $3\frac{1}{2}$	Lady principal and 3 teachers.  6 student teachers	9-12	2-4	12-2
Number of Classes. 6	$\frac{1}{3}$ are very poor.		$3\frac{1}{2}$ - 4				
			4 - $4\frac{1}{2}$				
			$4\frac{1}{2}$ - 5				
			5 - $5\frac{1}{2}$				
			$5\frac{1}{2}$ - 6				

\* NOTE.—State : "Comfortable," "poor," or "very poor."

REMARKS.—Leyden has three schools like this one, instituted by the Town Council. Leyden also many private schools.

STATE, PHILANTHROPIC, OR PRIVATE SCHOOL : Municipal School.

URBAN OR RURAL SCHOOL : Urban.

DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT : 1869.

CURRICULUM.  Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p>AGE 3-4.</p> <p>Half of the time per week is given to play.</p> <p>5 hours to Froebel's Gifts.</p> <p>1 " Drawing.</p> <p>1½ " Modelling (clay).</p> <p>1½ " Singing.</p> <p>1 " Recitation.</p> <p>1 " Story telling with pictures.</p>	<p>4 classrooms</p>	<p>18 forms in each classroom, each form for 3 children.</p> <p>Blackboard tables, chairs, stoves, gas-burners, etc.</p>	<p>2 playrooms, one with a piano. Garden with little gardens for each child.</p>	<p>Two lavatories, each with six basins, etc., towels.</p> <p>Bathing not provided for; not necessary.</p> <p>Meals are taken in the play-rooms during the recreation, after which the children are allowed to play in the garden, etc. Some children go home to meals.</p>
<p>AGE 4-5.</p> <p>½ of the time is given to play.</p> <p>4 hours to Froebel's Gifts.</p> <p>2 " Story telling with pictures.</p> <p>1 " Recitation.</p> <p>2 " Singing.</p> <p>3 " Drawing.</p> <p>1 " Modelling.</p> <p>3 " Paper work.</p> <p>1 " Other Froebel work.</p>				
<p>AGE 5-6.</p> <p>¼ of the time is given to play.</p> <p>2 hours to Froebel's Gifts.</p> <p>2 " Pronunciation and phonetic exercises.</p> <p>1½ " Calculating with small numbers.</p> <p>4 " Drawing.</p> <p>1 " Modelling.</p> <p>2 " Singing, reading notes, etc.</p> <p>1 " Recitation.</p> <p>3 " Paper work.</p> <p>2 " Other Froebel work.</p> <p>1 " Story telling.</p>				

is a small town of 50,000 inhabitants, with many factories, and a poor population. There are

COUNTRY: Switzerland.

STATE, PHILANTHROPIC OR PRIVATE SCHOOL: Philanthropic.

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
95  Number of Classes, 2	All grades.  Some are quite poor and are received without payment.  Others pay according to means, from 50 pfennigs to 2 francs monthly.	The school is worked in 2 sections. One contains the older children divided into 3 groups of 15 to 17 children each. The other section contains the rest of the children.	Section I., 5 to 6 years.  Section II., 3½ to 5 years.	2 Kindergarten teachers who were trained in the Kindergarten Normal School of St. Gallen and who passed the examination held at the end of the year's training.	8 to 11	1 to 4	Recreation time is from 8 to 9 in the morning, and 1 to 2 in the afternoon.

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor," "very poor."

REMARKS.—This school owes its foundation to a legacy. Private contributions and gifts, the town educational funds.

NAME OF TOWN OR DISTRICT: Frauenfeld.

DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT: 1889.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p>The curriculum consists of the Froebelian games and occupations. Daily the occupations, gymnastics, and play alternate with each other, each Kindergartner being responsible for her own time-table. In summer many walks are taken in the woods and fields. Each pupil has a small garden plot, care and culture of which is entrusted to the child himself.</p>	<p>Each Kindergartner has a room to herself.</p> <p>There is a circular play-room which is used in turn by each.</p> <p>The rooms are all lofty, spacious, airy, light, and well heated.</p> <p>The floors are swept from time to time to keep the air free from dust.</p>	<p>The class rooms are furnished with 10 small tables and benches for the children.</p> <p>In addition to these there are the teacher's table and chair, black-board, 3 cup-boards, a stove; there are also pictures for the observation lessons on the walls.</p> <p>The pegs for the children's hats and coats are in the corridor.</p>	<p>There is a play-room with low benches round the walls. There are toys, such as dolls, balls, dolls' houses, toy carts and carriages, etc. These are used by the children in turn in their free play.</p> <p>In the garden there is a large sand heap, and every child has a wooden spade and a mould for sand modelling.</p>	<p>Ordinary nursery provision for washing. The children bring their own supplies for the 9 o'clock lunch (bread, fruit, and chocolate). No other sweets are allowed.</p>

together with the children's fees aid in its support. The teachers' salaries, etc., are paid out of

*Result of the Froebel Society's Inquiry.*

COUNTRY: United States.

NAME OF TOWN OR DISTRICT: Chicago, Illinois.

NAME OF SCHOOL OR INSTITUTION: Kindergarten in the Chicago University School of Education.

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes. *	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
25 to 30 Number of Classes, Varies from 3 to 5	Comfortable.	10	6 to 3	3 to 6.  1 head teacher who conducts critic classes among the normal students as well as directs work of the Kindergarten.  1 trained assistant.  From 1 to 5 students who are doing observation and practice work.	9 to 12. in September and October 9 to 11.30	—	10 min.

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor," or "very poor."

REMARKS.—Our Kindergarten is the "demonstration" Kindergarten for a large normal our circumstances make it necessary to have more in order to afford them sufficient teaching



STATE, PHILANTHROPIC, OR PRIVATE SCHOOL: University of Chicago.

URBAN OR RURAL: Urban.

DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT: 1901.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipmen	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p>This is impossible to answer categorically. The children have building, modelling, drawing, painting, and construction in stiff paper, and work at the sand table, some designing in coloured paper, sticks, tablets, etc.</p> <p>Their nature study is very informal. The number work is all in connection with their games and that needed in building and designing.</p> <p>Gardening.</p> <p>Care of doves.</p> <p>Care of room (arranging chairs, rugs, tables, materials, etc.)</p> <p>Children have 2 work periods daily of 25 minutes each. The rest of the time given to singing, story-telling, games, rest, etc.</p>	<p>3: 1 large room for general exercises and play.</p> <p>1 small room with gas stove and running water.</p> <p>1 room with sand table, &amp;c</p>	<p>Large low tables.</p> <p>3 sizes of chairs with comfortable backs.</p>	<p>Balls, slide, plenty of skipping, dancing, and running games.</p> <p>Many outdoor walks and runs in garden, field, and park, excursions to get nature material, gardening, etc.</p>	<p>Luncheon of a Graham cracker or whole wheat dry biscuit.</p> <p>Recess time at about 10.30 a.m.</p> <p>Children need no bathing.</p>

training class for Kindergartners. We would not wish more than 3 teachers to 30 children, but experience.

## A RURAL SCHOOL IN THE NORTH OF

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers, with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
120 Number of Classes.	(Whole School.) 65 comfortable, 33 poor, 22 very poor.	38	7½—5½	2 [Head Mistress Board of Education Certificate, and Ex-Pupil Teacher.]	9 to 12	1-30 to 3-40	20 mins. per day. " " " " " "
I.							" 30 " " " "
II.		38	yr.yr.mth. 6—4 8	1 [Assistant. Supplementary (No qualification pre- vious to engage- ment here).]	9-12	1-30 to 3-40	Resting or Free Play Recreation Recreation (Outside Play).
III.		44	5—3	2 [Assistant. Supplementary (No qualification pre- vious to engage- ment here). Monitress 14 years old helps half days.]	9-12	1-30 to 3-40	Resting or Free Play - 30 mins. per day. Recreation - 30 " " " (In fine weather babies are taken out into the playground for one hour each session.)

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor," or "very poor."

REMARKS (by the Head Teacher).—Ten years ago I determined to banish all school work in every possible way—often in the face of determined opposition—to conduct it as an 2nd, to assist natural development; and 3rd, to eliminate all trace of repression. I am and they acquire the habit of "feeling happy" while in the babies' room. In the two higher the change. But by the time they are 8 years of age they accomplish more and better self-reliant than before. I am pleased to say that during the last two years I have had encour-employment of a Temporary Additional Teacher. This will enable me to take another step children aged 4 to 6; and a Transition Class for children aged 6 to 7.

## ENGLAND IN A MANUFACTURING VILLAGE.

CURRICULUM.			CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.			Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing Meals and Rest.
	Class I.	Class II.				
Oral Composition and Reading.	6	5	1 light airy classroom, S.W. aspect.	Six desks, flat tops. Separate seat for each child.	Spare floor space 21 x 9 feet. See-saw plank, chair swing, skipping ropes, and toy reins, supplied by managers.	Bathing. — None.
Writing and Printing	6	5	Desk room for 36 children.	Teacher's desk and chair.		Washing. — Two lavatory basins; clean towels twice weekly.
Story, Picture, Conversational, and Observation Lessons.	5	6	Separate seats.	Trestle table for object lessons. Two cupboards. Swing see-saw. Four loose forms.		Meals. — Taken on dual desks in classroom.
Number . . . . .	5	5				
Drawing . . . . .	6	5				
Modelling in Clay . . . . .	2	2				
Other occupations . . . . .	5	5				
Kindergarten Games	20	20	1 large, airy. South aspect. Used as central hall for opening and closing exercises, games, and singing.	Desks arranged round three sides of the room. Teacher's desk with drawers and cupboards. Two cupboards. Piano, Maypole.	Spare floor space 27 x 18 feet. Maypole, skipping ropes, and toy reins, supplied by managers.	Rest. — Sleepy children are laid on table or cupboard top, and given a pillow, over which is spread a clean duster. All children are at times made to lie down on the floor, shut their eyes, and pretend to go to sleep for 10 or 15 minutes.
Free Play . . . . .						
Maypole Exercises . . . . .						
Recreative Exercises . . . . .	6	6				
Singing, Recitations, and Entertainment by children.	1	1				
Citizenship . . . . .	1	1				
School Walk . . . . .	1	1				
Religious Instruction . . . . .	5	5				
CLASS III.—BABIES.						
	Per week.					
Varied occupations—Gift I., Sandwork, Shell and Stick Laying, Bead Threading, Ball Making.	28		1 light airy classroom with fire place, but northern aspect, consequently no sunshine.	Dual desks arranged round room close to the walls to leave floor space free. Six little chairs, four loose forms with back rests. Sand tank, spades, and buckets, dolls, and other toys, <i>ad. lib.</i> Three cupboards, rocking horse. Chair swing.	Spare floor space 24 x 15 feet. Cork carpet laid in centre of floor, where younger children play with bricks, crawl or roll about. Rocking horse, chair swing, balls, dolls, and toys, which are constantly in use.	
Matching and Sorting . . . . .	7					
Free Drawing . . . . .	7					
Games and Singing . . . . .	10					
Games and Fairy Tales . . . . .	3					
Games and Nursery Rhymes . . . . .	3					
Free Play . . . . .	10					
Resting . . . . .	5					
Talks about Toys or Objects . . . . .	2					
Number Plays . . . . .	5					
Religious Instruction . . . . .	5					

from my babies' room, and re-organize it on common-sense lines. Since then I have striven to organize a Nursery, my aims being:—1st, To make the children happy and comfortable; fully convinced that the change is of infinite benefit, for the children are stronger physically than formerly, and the teachers say that they are much more intelligent and obedient from the Managers, by the granting of extra apparatus, and quite recently by the towards the realization of my ideal—viz., a Nursery for children aged 3 and 4; a Kindergarten for

*Result of the Froebel Society's Inquiry.*

A LARGE CITY SCHOOL IN

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
730	Poor.	43	Grade I.	1 head teacher.	3 hrs.	2 hrs.	15 mins. each session.
Number of Classes.	Parents very temperate and take great care of children.		3-5 years (very few 5 years).	14 assistants (with elementary teacher's certificate).		2½ hrs. in Standard I.	2 hrs. in middle of day.
1 } Grade I.			Grade II.	1 assistant (with the Higher Froebel certificate).			
2 }			4½-6 years.				
3 }							
4 } Grade II.			Grade III.	1 assistant teacher (passed K.S. examination).			
5 }			5½-7½ years				
6 }			(very few 7½ years).	3 supplementary teachers.			
7 }							
8 }							
9 } Grade III.			Standard I.	4 pupil teachers.			
10 }			6½-8 years				
11 }			(very few 8 years).	Total (exclusive of pupil teachers) 20.			
12 }							
13 }							
14 } Standard I.							
15 }							
16 }							
17 }							

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor" or "very poor."

REMARKS.—The school work is centred around the Observation Lessons. Each year a list of these is prepared. tion lessons for the coming month; (2) Stories in connection; (3) Poems, songs and games in connection. Books of according to the requirements of her class

THE SOUTH OF ENGLAND.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p><b>GRADE I.</b> Only occupations, such as clay modelling, drawing with chalk, drawing in sand, building, threading large beads. The work periods are of 15 mins. each and are separated by like periods of song, game, marching and story.</p> <p><b>GRADE II.</b> 3 hrs. per week :— Reading, writing and number. Occupations, 5 hrs. per week :— 1. Drawing with chalk on paper. 2. Clay modelling. 3. Building. 4. Stick-laying, tablet laying. 5. Mat-weaving (1 in. wide strips only used).</p> <p>6 hrs. 10 mins. :— Physical drill. Games, songs, poems. Occupations, 1 hr. 40 mins. : Environment talks. Observation and nature lessons stories.</p> <p><b>GRADE III.</b> 5 hrs. 50 mins. :— Reading, writing, number. Occupations, 4 hrs. 35 mins. :— 1. Drawing with chalk or crayons. 2. Brush drawing of simple natural forms. 3. Clay modelling. 4. Building. 5. Paper folding, tearing and cutting. 6. Free paper tearing and cutting. Occupations, 5 hrs. :— Physical drill. Games, songs, poems. Occupations, 2 hrs. :— Environment talks. Observation stories, and nature lessons.</p> <p><b>STANDARD I.</b> 7 hrs. 35 mins. :— Reading, writing, number. Occupations, 3 hrs. 20 mins. :— Drawing with chalk and crayon. Brush drawing. Paper folding, tearing and cutting. <i>Girls</i>—Simplest sewing. <i>Boys</i>—Experimental class in wood-work. Practical geometry. Occupations, 6 hrs. :— Physical drill. Games, songs, poems. Occupations, 2 hrs. 30 mins. :— Stories, environment talk. Observation lesson. Religious instructions from 9-9.40 a.m.</p>	<p>14 rooms, well ventilated, well heated, mostly bright and cheerful. 4 very noisy owing to proximity to a busy street.</p> <p>5 rooms on ground floor, 9 rooms on 1st floor.</p>	<p><b>Grade I.</b> Small tables and chairs, very light and quickly moved leaving floor space for games.</p> <p><b>Other classes</b>—dual desks cannot be moved, but most rooms have fair amount of floor space in front of class for games and drill.</p>	<p>One covered playground allowing about 130 children to play comfortably.</p> <p>One open playground allowing 100 to play comfortably.</p> <p>Under ground play ground accommodating 120 children.</p> <p>Ground floor and 1st floor have separate playtimes.</p>	<p>None.</p> <p>Latrines modern and adequate to numbers.</p>

Each month, every teacher receives a connection scheme from the head-teacher. This gives (1) Notes on one observation for teacher's use. The scheme is not given in detail. Each teacher works out her own scheme in detail

## AN URBAN SCHOOL

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
200-250	Poor and very poor.	30 to 35.	At beginning of year, Sept. 1, 1907.	2 trained certificated mistresses. 2 Kindergarden mistresses. 1 certificated mistress. 3 uncertificated mistresses.	—	—	Play is often extended in fine weather. Games played outside.
Number of Classes. 7							50 minutes.
Class IV. Babies.		From 20 at beginning of year to 45 at end.	3 years to 3 years 7 months.	1 Kindergarden mistress (Higher Froebel certificate) just left college.	3 hours.	2 hours.	
Class III.		about 40	3 years 8 months to 4 years 8 months.	1 uncertificated mistress.	"	"	30 minutes.
Class II.		55	4 years 8 months to 5 years 10 months.	1 trained certificated mistress. 1 uncertificated with local Kindergarten certificate.	"	"	"
Class I. A.	}	32	5 years 6 months to 6 years 9 months.	1 trained certificated mistress with Froebel certificate.	"	"	"
Class I. B.		18	5 years 6 months to 7 years.	1 certificated mistress with local Kindergarten certificate.	"	"	"
St. I. A.		34	6 years 6 months to 7 years 8 months.	1 trained Kindergarten mistress (Higher Froebel certificate).	"	"	"
St. I. B.		21	6 years 1 month to 7 years 8 months.	1 ex-pupil teacher spent her pupil teachership here.	"	"	"

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor," or "very poor."

REMARKS (By the Head Teacher).—The whole of the work here is based on Froebel's round which all the other subjects are grouped, and with which they are interwoven. of attainments. In giving the ages above, I have excluded four exceptional children, one the winter—just eight, and one new admission the same age. I do not care to have children

The central hall is being used all day for singing, games, drill, blackboard work by one ever classroom happens to be vacant.

classroom. They may choose bricks or sticks, or clay, or chalk, or picture books, etc., and Reading is taught on the phonic method and exceptions gradually incorporated. Arith- No needlework is taken with children under Standard I. age, the extra time is given to Scripture stories, or repetition, or hymns, are taken every day after assembly, and prayers Drawing takes the place of writing till children are five years of age. No children under

## IN WALES.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p>Walks, gardening, play in the sand are not included among subjects, as they vary with the seasons and the weather. Lessons vary very much in length, 10 to 30 minutes according to age of children and subject taught.</p> <p>Babies devote all their time to singing, games, finger plays, gift plays, suitable Kindergarten occupations—play in the sand beach, picture and object talks, language lessons, and free time. No three R.'s.</p> <p>Similar to class above, except that 1 lesson a day in sounds—Miss Dale's method—and 1 in number plays and pictures is given. No writing.</p> <p>Five lessons per week in reading and number and 4 nature lessons; 2 stories, 2 writing, 5 games and drawing; 3 singing, 2 recitation, 3 picture talks, 8 expression lessons, 2 free times.</p> <p>Five lessons in reading, writing, arithmetic, 7 expression lessons, 3 singing, 3 games, 2 blackboard drawing, 2 stories, 4 nature lessons, 2 drill, 2 word building, 2 recitation, 1 free time (Friday afternoon).</p> <p>Five lessons in reading, writing, 6 arithmetic, 5 expression lessons, 2 word building, 2 blackboard drawing, 2 games, 3 drill, 2 recitation, 3 singing, 1 story, 1 geography, 1 history, 2 nature lessons. <i>Girls</i>, 1 sewing, 1 knitting. <i>Boys</i>, 1 sepi sketches, 1 flat wash work.</p>	<p>Central Hall, 42 by 26 ft.; height, 16 ft. 5 Classrooms, 24½ by 20½ ft.; height, 14 ft.</p> <p>Classrooms are arranged on three sides of Central Hall. Each one very light and airy. Lighting from the left except in Baby Room; there from the right. Blackboards for free-arm work all round the hall. Two rings painted on floor for games. Piano.</p>	<p>—</p> <p>20 dual desks, large swing, toys, all usual Kindergarten apparatus. Dove in cage.</p> <p>25 dual desks, muraline round walls for free-arm work.</p> <p>25 dual desks, muraline also round walls.</p> <p>25 dual desks.</p> <p>Suitably equipped.</p> <p>30 dual desks.</p> <p>Suitably equipped.</p>	<p>Hall used for games by every class; also for marching, and free play on a wet day.</p> <p>Small sand beach. Large flat playground. Children's garden. Small covered play shed. Also large field attached where children play in summer.</p>	<p>There are no baths, but 5 washing basins in lobbies with soap and towels. Children all go home to dinner except in rare cases on a wet day. There are no beds or hammocks.</p>

principles. Nature study is the basis subject, providing the central idea for each week's work.

*Classification* is not so much on the age basis as on intelligence exhibited and the standard suffering from arrested development, one consumptive, one who is only staying down through here as a rule when they are over 8½ years.

The lower division of Standard I. being a migratory one and using which-class or another.

During *free time* the children do whatever they choose individually, keeping to their own make just what they please. Babies get free time twice every day.

metic on a concrete basis with apparatus.

brushwork, etc.

till 9.30.

five admitted unless physically fit. Eyesight of children over six tested.

## APPENDIX A.

NEW SOUTH WALES : INFANT SCHOOLS AND KINDERGARTENS UNDER THE  
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The Public Schools of the Department of Public Instruction in New South Wales provide for the education of more than 80 per cent. of the children of school age within the State.

Of the pupils enrolled at the end of 1906 there were 26,332 under the age of seven years. This number represented about 12·7 per cent. of the total enrolment.

There are but half a dozen purely Kindergarten Schools, but in all Infant Schools (111 in number) Kindergarten occupations form a part of the course, and the teaching throughout is permeated by the spirit and the methods of the true Kindergarten. To a considerable extent also this remark will apply to the junior classes of schools of one department.

As a rule children below the age of five years are not admitted to the ordinary Public School, but the Kindergartens enrol pupils of three years and upwards. The total number of children below five years of age in all schools under the Education Department at the end of last year was 552.

*(a) Infant Schools.*

Schools which have an average attendance of 300 or more pupils usually have a separate Infants' Department. There are, as a rule, about forty pupils in each class. They range in age from five to eight years. In rare cases pupils of nine or ten years will be found there, but these are either children whose early educational opportunities have been few, or who are below the normal in intelligence. As yet there are not, in this State, any schools for defectives (except an institution for the deaf and dumb, and the blind), consequently many abnormal children will be found in the various Infant Schools.

The teacher in charge of an Infant School is usually a trained woman of sympathetic temperament and of long experience in teaching beginners.

The daily routine is similar to that of the ordinary Public School, except that there are shorter lessons and more frequent changes of occupation. The morning session lasts from 9.30 a.m. till 12.30 p.m., with a break of ten or fifteen minutes at 11 a.m. for recreation. The afternoon session is from 2 to 4 p.m. Here also a break of five or ten minutes is made, at about 3 p.m.

Lessons are from ten to thirty minutes in length. At least one lesson per day is devoted to deep-breathing and physical exercises. A definite scheme of calisthenic movements, as set out in a manual compiled by Colonel Paul and Dr. Reuter Roth, is carefully carried out in all Infant Schools. Frequently a few minutes between lessons are spent in practising free exercises of the limbs, and in body-flections, or in singing some bright and tuneful melody.

About 10½ hours per week are devoted to English, 5½ hours to number work, two hours each to nature study and to art work, 1½ hours each to singing and to Scripture and moral lessons.

For the first six months of school life the child receives no formal instruction. An attempt is made to utilise his natural curiosity and love of movement, and his responsiveness to sense impressions, for his self-education. The little pupil is encouraged to express himself freely and without constraint, and the teacher endeavours, so far as the exigencies of the large class will permit, to establish proper relations with the child. The teacher's chief aims at this stage are to develop confidence between herself and her pupil, to implant a spirit of obedience, and to give a stimulus to the child's mental and physical growth.

Having accomplished these objects with more or less success, the formal instruction is begun.

The pupil is taught to read from script characters, short sentences



chosen by the teacher from the children's conversation during "Talks" in the school. The sentences are written upon the blackboard by the teacher and are subsequently written by the pupils upon their tablets. The teacher tells, or reads aloud, to the pupils suitable nursery rhymes and fairy stories, and, at a later stage, the children themselves read these and other lessons from the graded primers.

Several times a week the pupils take part in observation talks and picture talks, each of about ten minutes' duration. The former are upon topics from the children's experiences, the latter on pictures then before the class. They afford exercises in oral description of things seen, and they give opportunities for the encouragement of free talk between teacher and pupils.

All class-rooms in which infants are taught have their walls decorated with suitable pictures. Efforts are made from the first to profitably use these to develop the æsthetic side of the child's nature—to guide him to a love for the beautiful, thence leading onward to an admiration for the beautiful in deed as well, and a reverence for the good and the true.

The child's early writing lessons are correlated with his free arm drawing. He learns to make the letter-forms, first upon the wall-blackboard, and subsequently, at an appropriate stage, on his writing-tablet. From the first his writing is used to express his own thoughts, and at an early stage his power to exchange spoken thoughts into written ones is effectively exercised.

His number work, in the earliest stages, is done with counters, thus making full use of the senses of sight and touch. There is therefore a reality in the work, which makes it interesting. The opportunity which the counters afford for imaginative work is not overlooked; and, as his knowledge of number increases, each new acquirement is immediately applied to the doing of something, thus helping to give permanence to the concept.

The pupil studies, with the aid of the divided cube, the division of quantities into parts, and the use of the fractions  $\frac{1}{2}$  and  $\frac{1}{4}$ . He correlates this work with drawing. He measures, with a foot rule, in feet and inches the lengths of the objects around the room. He handles, and learns to recognise and to name, the coins in common use, and he learns their relative values. When he has experimentally determined any number fact, he is able to deepen the impression and commit the fact to memory by frequent but intelligent repetition.

His nature studies are not the least among the influences which create attention by arousing his curiosity. This work being intelligently handled is so used as to guide him into right ideas about life. He studies the living things—both plant and animal—by which he is surrounded. He is encouraged to observe and to record the various stages in the growth and development of the plants grown in the school garden or (in the case of City Schools) in pots upon the window-sill or flower-stand. With equal, if not greater, interest he studies the life history of the tadpole in the school aquarium or the caterpillar in the live-specimen box. He expresses his thoughts about these things orally (with gradually increasing mastery of language), or in writing, drawing or plasticene modelling. In all this work the ethical end is kept steadily in view by the teacher—viz., the arousing of a sympathy with nature and (especially in the case of insect-study) with those living creatures which are comparatively weak.

In the Scripture and moral lessons the child learns something of those moral attributes which lie at the foundation of home and school life. Scripture stories are told, and instruction is given in truthfulness, obedience to parents, family affection, politeness, control of temper, personal cleanliness, kindness to animals, and other virtues.

Drawing, in mass, with coloured crayons, upon the wall blackboards is employed to enable the child to give expression to the impressions gained from observation during the nature study or from stories read or heard. Attempts are made to secure intelligent individual effort, and the importance of the development of the child's powers of imagination receives full recognition.

Singing forms an important part of each day's work. Bright simple songs about Natural objects, or about school and home life, are frequently sung in unison. Simple melodies by ear, action songs and marching songs,

each have a place on the time table. Care is taken to secure sweetness and softness of tone, and to develop that mental perception of pitch which produces the best musical results.

This may be regarded as a brief outline of the work consciously aimed at in all, and actually accomplished in the best of, our Infant Schools.

*(b) New South Wales Kindergartens.*

The first Kindergarten under the Department of Public Instruction in New South Wales was established in Riley Street, Sydney, in the year 1886. Miss E. L. Banks (who had been trained as a Kindergarten in Germany) was placed in charge, and for three years she did some excellent pioneer work in the locality. Some of the earliest pupils were children much beyond the usual Kindergarten age, who had managed to evade the compulsory clause of the Education Act and had not previously attended any school. Some were so dirty in personal habits and untidy in personal appearance that practical instruction in cleanliness was their most urgent need. But the kindly manner and gentle, yet forceful, influence of Miss Banks soon wrought a wonderful change in the outward aspect of these unkempt pupils of the early days. The worthy traditions established by the first head-mistress have been fully and consistently maintained for the past 21 years.

The original building was a rough wooden structure, badly constructed and poorly furnished. It was attended by about 100 pupils.

Miss Banks had as her assistant from the beginning Miss Mary Simpson, a trained teacher and ex-student of Hurlstone College. When, after three years' work at Riley Street, Miss Banks was removed to Fort Street, there to establish a second Kindergarten, Miss Simpson was placed in charge of the pioneer Kindergarten School (1889), where she still remains.

A brief description of the work now being done there and of the present buildings may give an idea of the few purely Kindergarten Schools now under the Education Department of New South Wales.

The school is situated in a thickly-populated, poor district. It therefore has varied work to do. Much effort is required to secure regularity, punctuality, cleanliness, politeness of manner and thoroughness in work. But the teachers strive earnestly and successfully to attain these ends. The pupils are taught, from the first, to know that each object in and around the school has its definite place, and they are trained to put each thing in its proper position. They are taught the proper use of nail, boot and clothes brush. In the new lavatory is kept a tub for bathing purposes, and, when necessary, lessons in personal cleanliness are practically enforced. Again, some of the little ones come from very poor homes and at times they are unable to secure proper nourishment. The teachers having been provided with a suitable stove are able to supply warm food in such cases. Miss Simpson keeps a sewing machine on the premises, and she uses it to make clothing for some of the destitute children among her pupils.

Children are received at three or four years of age. They spend from nine to eighteen months in the Kindergarten section, where there is no formal instruction, but where the senses are fully trained, all suitable gifts and occupations being used. The following summary of the day's work in the Kindergarten will convey some impression of the methods adopted:

From 9.30 to 9.45 a.m. a quarter of an hour is devoted to free play. The children are allowed to select their own occupation and they play with blocks, toys, picture-books, sand trays, etc. During the next 15 minutes they march and form a circle. Greetings are exchanged with fellow pupils, teachers, visitors; then a morning hymn is sung, sweetly and softly, sometimes, but not always, to a pianoforte accompaniment. From 10 to 10.15 a.m. they have a morning talk, naming the day and the season, marking the calendar and the weather-chart, and so on, possibly, too, talking on some subject correlated with the central idea of the day's work. The following 10 minutes are devoted to Kindergarten games. An inspection of cleanliness takes place, and all pupils with clean fingernails, clothes and boots are selected for a special final game.

At 10.35 a.m. the pupils march to their Kindergarten tables, and, under the guidance of their teacher, they work together for 25 minutes, with the "gift" or "occupation" needed for correlation with the central idea.

The following quarter of an hour is set apart for lunch. First, grace is said; then parcels are unwrapped and food is eaten. Whilst at the table manners receive full attention. Having finished their lunch the clearing-up is done by the children. Thoroughness is insisted upon, the necessary training being facilitated by the use of convenient apparatus supplied by the Department.

From 11.15 to 11.30 a.m. the pupils have songs and games, and the next 15 minutes are devoted to a story or fairy tale correlated with the central idea. Then a quarter of an hour's work at sand trays (illustrations of nursery rhymes, stories, etc.) brings the time up to noon. A picture or observation talk, correlated with the central idea, occupies the next 10 minutes. Then the period from 12.10 to 12.25 p.m. is devoted to Kindergarten gift or occupation.

The mid-day recess is from 12.30 to 2 p.m. The first 20 minutes of the afternoon session are devoted to free crayon drawing on the large wall blackboard. Then for 10 minutes songs are sung.

From 2.30 to 2.45 such Kindergarten occupations (paper cutting, bead threading, etc.) are taken as can best be correlated with the central idea.

The final quarter of an hour, prior to dismissal at 3 p.m., is devoted to leave-taking. The good-bye song is sung, the Kindergarten taking each child's hand and looking steadily into the eyes of the pupil, who is required to return the steady look.

When the pupils have developed sufficiently they pass on to a higher class, where formal work—at first of a very elementary kind—is begun. The work is purposely made so simple that it really seems like play to the little ones. But they are gradually adding to their stock of ideas; and, in a bright and natural way, are acquiring the power to read, write, and use numbers.

Throughout the whole school the work is carefully graded and Kindergarten principles permeate and pervade all the teaching.

Pupils, who have passed through the whole of this course, are much appreciated in the Primary Schools, whither they go at about eight years of age. Some years ago a headmaster in charge of a public school, which was largely supplied with pupils from the Kindergarten, found such pupils more bright and alert than the average child not so trained. Their powers of observation were noticeably better, and they excelled both in original thought and in vocal expression. The Riley Street Kindergarten has a staff of eight teachers, including the Principal. Most of the teachers have been trained, and all have had several years' experience in teaching infants. The following statement of enrolment will be found interesting:—

Class.	Enrolment.	Av. Attendance.	Ages of	
			Youngest.	Eldest.
			Years.	Years.
Kindergarten ...	65	47	3	4
Lower 1st ...	52	39	4½	5½
Upper 1st ...	69	54	5	6
2nd ...	58	52	5	6½
3rd ...	44	41	5	7½
Lower 4th ...	53	49	6	7½
Upper 4th ...	49	44	7	8½

A brief description of the premises of Riley Street Kindergarten will afford an idea of the aim of the Department in the matter of material equipment of all new Infant Schools.

All recently-erected buildings approximate this standard, but many of the older buildings are very defective in certain respects. As opportunity offers, however, improvements are being gradually effected in these old, badly-constructed buildings.

The Riley Street School buildings are built of brick. They are situated on the heights of Surry Hills. On two sides they face public streets, and on one side a lane. There are, therefore, full opportunities for securing an adequate supply of sunlight and fresh air. The rooms are well-lighted and ventilated. The main building is of two stories. It has four large classrooms, two corridors, used as hat and cloak rooms, and a teachers' retiring room.

The Kindergarten Cottage is on the opposite side of the playground. It also is placed so that it may receive abundant fresh air and sunlight. Its main room is large and well-ventilated. A wall blackboard, conveniently placed so as to suit the height of the pupils, surrounds the room. This affords opportunity for exercise in free-arm drawing with coloured chalks.

The wall colouring is of a light tint, so as to add to the brightness of the room. Suitable pictures and diagrams are hung on the walls. The room also contains glass cases and cupboards for the specimens brought by the children; an aquarium peopled by gold fish and other denizens of the water; numerous nature-study specimens, picture books, toys, sand-trays, and other apparatus of use and interest to the young folk.

The playground has fine garden plots, wherein are grown many flowering plants—chiefly annuals, for the teachers realise that plants "which re-enact the miracle of life anew each year" are best suited for teaching the little ones the elements of nature knowledge. All plants are properly labelled, and records of growth are carefully kept. Live birds also are kept on the premises—canaries, chickens, ducklings—for nature study purposes. Cats, dogs, &c., are borrowed as occasion requires. The large playground sand-box proves useful for illustrating stories, &c. It is a favourite corner at all times. Various games are organised by the teachers, and skipping-ropes, nine-pins, quoits, &c., are provided for this purpose. All the apparatus is effectively used so that the purpose of the true Kindergarten may be successfully achieved.

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## APPENDIX B.

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### KINDERGARTENS IN CANADA.

In Canada the genuine Froebelian Kindergarten is the basis of all education. The early years of a child's life are not devoted to the acquiring of formal knowledge. In the Kindergarten the children have the opportunity of developing the apperceptive elements of all their future growth, emotionally, intellectually, and morally. The symbolic period before the age of eight is devoted to a careful and comprehensive process of starting the growth of all the known elements of power in the child's life, instead of attempting to store his memory with facts, or to urge his reasoning powers into premature and unnatural action. One of the most certain ways for deadening the child's interest and for dwarfing his power is to induce him to perform too early mental operations which properly belong to a later period. The operations of his mind which are stimulating at ten will inevitably arrest his development if performed at eight or nine. For instance, a child who has spent the years from five to eight in a good Kindergarten, and who is not asked to begin the process of learning to read till he is nine, will learn to read in less than a month, instead of devoting years to this work. The drudgery of the time usually devoted to reading and other formal school work robs the child of the joy of interest, and therefore strikes at the root of the power

of learning rapidly, and of assimilating knowledge in a natural and vital manner. The child who spends his symbolic years in a good Kindergarten instead of in a school, where he is taught formal knowledge even by the most advanced methods, has many advantages at fourteen over the child whose symbolic years have been spent in the acquisition of knowledge. In the first place, he will have more knowledge of arithmetic, grammar, and the other departments of scholarship. But this is the least of his advantages. He will be able to use his knowledge better. His attitude to the great world of knowledge will be more alert and vital. His knowledge will not merely be stored in his memory, it will be a definite part of his life power. He will be a self-active and intelligent agent in the acquisition of new knowledge, and in the achievement of progressively greater plans.

The great fundamental aim in our primary education is the awakening and developing of the elements of power in the child and not the storing of knowledge. Knowledge is gained as power is developed, and when acquired in this way the knowledge is vital as an element of executive power. The only knowledge that really counts in forming character or aiding in the progressive evolution of humanity is knowledge that is associated with executive power both in its acquirement and in its use.

Every child who is not defective reveals the three great central elements of human power and development as soon as he is able to creep. He loves to do things, to do things he plans himself, and to do things in co-operation with others. These tendencies are the most essential elements in vital Christian character. They are the essential elements in the progress of civilization. They gradually and very rapidly become stronger and more active in the guidance of the child's life till he goes to school. Then they quickly lose their power, and the loss can never be fully regained. The earlier the child goes to school, the greater is the dwarfing of these powers if his school is conducted along the ordinary lines of formal knowledge-gaining. These three essential elements of character and power should be the dominant elements of adulthood even more fully than in childhood. The greatest defect in humanity is not a lack of knowledge, but the lack of these three great tendencies of childhood, when men and women have grown up. The higher the element of human power is, the more rapid and the more limitless is the possibility of its development. The tendency to do, to do what we ourselves plan, and to do in co-operation with others, should grow uninterruptedly throughout our lives, and it would increase in power more than any other element of our power if it was not interrupted and interfered with by giving formal instruction prematurely, at the time when the supreme aims of the educator should be the development of power, the formation of the widest possible range of apperceptive centres, and the kindling of new departments of self-activity. All these conditions develop very rapidly before the child goes to school if he is free from adult interference, and in conditions that provide proper materials for his use. The Kindergarten aims to continue through the symbolic period of a child's development the essential elements of his life before he goes to school, and thus to define, and strengthen, and increase the powers and tendencies that should become the dominant elements in the direction of his course through life. It continues till he is eight years of age the kind of development he had before he came to school, but under systematized conditions and by the use of materials and processes specifically intended to define in his experience the powers and tendencies he will most need for the achievement of the highest success in school and throughout his life. It gives opportunity for the three great central elements of his power to ripen, and guides them into new fields of operation as they are ripening.

If the processes of growth are interfered with at the age of five, or earlier, as is yet done in some schools, and instruction substituted for development prematurely, a great crime is committed against the child. He is robbed of his power, and he can never either love or acquire knowledge as fully as he should have done. If the elements of human power and character are allowed to ripen till the child is eight years of age, they remain the dominant and directing elements of his character while he lives, and he will love to study because he will long for knowledge that he may use it, not merely store it.

So long as the genuine Kindergarten work is made the only directed work of the child till he is eight years of age, natural development is not arrested. Eight years is taken as the proper age of the average normal child. Very bright children, and defective children, should remain longer in the Kindergarten than normal children. Children who are merely dull at four or five years of age are made really defective by attempts to give them formal knowledge prematurely. There is a corresponding dwarfing in the case of the normal child. The fact that he is strong enough to overcome the blighting effects sufficiently to prevent the manifestation of positive mental weakness, has prevented the revelation of the great evil done to him by the schools.

We use Froebel's "occupations" to develop the child's industrial power, his originality, his executive ability and his relationship to the world's work; the "gifts" define his mathematical and constructive powers; the drawing reveals his selfhood in art and gives him artistic taste; the music and songs and stories stir his emotional nature and lay the basis for literature and history in future years; the nature work uses the child's love of Nature to lead to the interested study of science when he is older; the plays and games develop him physically and lead him to understand his value as an individual and the need of perfect co-operation with his fellows in order to achieve success. Every department of Kindergarten work trains him to be free and self-active under directive law, and to be executive and not merely responsive to the direction of others; and this independent executive work under directive law enables him to understand when he is older the "perfect law of liberty" which is the only sure foundation for intelligent and progressive citizenship.

Having kindled the apperceptive centres of intellectual and moral power in the Kindergarten, we find that the child makes much more rapid progress and is more happy and self-directive during the later years of his school life.

JAMES L. HUGHES.

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## APPENDIX C.

## NOTES ON VISITS TO INSTITUTIONS IN GERMANY FOR CHILDREN UNDER SCHOOL AGE (DRESDEN AND EISENACH).

The following notes of personal observations made in August, 1908, confirm the impressions received from studying the returns from Germany:—

*Kindergartens.*

The Froebel Seminar in Dresden was founded in 1872. It trains Kindergarten instructresses and *Pflegerinnen* (Nurses) for children in private families. The period of training is one year in each case, but the course of instruction for the nurses is much less extended than in the case of the Kindergarten teachers. The curriculum for the latter includes pedagogy, physiology, hygiene, nature study, voice production, singing, gymnastics and the Froebelian principles and practice. The course for the nurses comprises matters pertaining to the bodily care of young children, together with laundry work, needlework, &c., as well as instruction in nature study and the Froebelian activities. Diplomas are given at the end of the year's training according to the results of the examination held.

The students practise in the Kindergartens and *Kinderbewahranstalten* in the city. Each student is attached for three months to a given Kindergarten and is then transferred to another. In this way the teaching power in the various Kindergartens is increased.

There are seven *Volkskindergärten* (People's Kindergartens) in the city, four of which consist of two sections, i.e., there are two classes, each under a responsible trained instructress. There are 800 children in these Kindergartens. One Kindergarten visited was that attached to the Seminar in one of the better class districts. About sixty children are in attendance—and forty-five were present on this particular day. The students were still in vacation, so that the staff on the morning of the visit consisted of the mistress and one of the *Kinderpflegerinnen* in training. The one room is large, airy, well lighted and altogether pleasant. In the afternoon it is used as a lecture room for the seminar students, as the children attend only in the mornings from nine till twelve. There is little else in the way of furniture except the low tables and benches on which the children sit, a teacher's blackboard, a piano and cupboards. There is a pleasant garden, part of which is lightly roofed in, and here there are seats where the children take their lunch, which is brought in neat baskets and consists chiefly of rye-bread, with, in some cases, butter or fruit. The mistress said there was no fixed routine for the day. On this particular morning the opening hymn was sung at 9.30. Then followed a talk on holiday experiences interspersed by action songs suggested by the incidents discussed. At ten o'clock lunch was taken in the garden by mistress and pupils, and then followed the washing of hands. For this a movable washstand was taken into the garden. All this formed the opportunity for careful training in behaviour—much importance was evidently attached to this part of the daily routine. Directed play in the garden followed, the little ones forming their own ring under the supervision of the *Kinderpfegerin*. On returning to the schoolroom a story was told which was illustrated by the children with beads. The children here pay 1 mark 25 pfennigs a month (1s. 3d.). Another Kindergarten visited in a populous working-class district in the city is located in two rooms on the second floor of a small factory. The rooms are well lighted and scrupulously clean, but the accommodation is not sufficient for the numbers—thirty to forty in each room. One of the teachers said they hoped soon to have better quarters. The garden is small, but large enough for one class to play circle games, and the two classes take it in turns to use the garden. There is a covered-in part with seats. In the winter the light and easily moved tables are put round the room and the children play in the middle. There cannot, however, be adequate space for this. The

morning session lasts from 9 to 12, and the afternoon from 2 to 4. There is no fixed daily routine, though the courses of handwork are planned for the year and are graduated. Pricking and embroidery, paper-folding, weaving in different materials, Kindergarten drawing and clay-modelling are the chief activities. Slates are used.

Another Kindergarten visited was in Eisenach. This is located in a two storey house with a small garden, in which the trees are so numerous and large that they darken the rooms where instruction is carried on. There are four rooms for three classes, each containing from twenty-five to thirty children. The children are classed according to age, and the handwork and games are graduated accordingly. On the occasion of the visit the oldest children were building with the fifth gift and embroidering simple designs. The children play in turn in the garden. There are hoops, balls, and other playthings. One of the rooms is kept bare of furniture and is used as a playroom. The furniture in all the rooms is very simple and light in character. There are two sessions in the day, 9 to 12 and 2 to 4. The monthly fee is 1s. 3d., and all other support is defrayed by means of private subscriptions. The town gave the ground on which the house is built, but affords no further aid.

In Dresden gardens are attached to several of the Kindergartens, and these are used for nature study and gardening classes on the Wednesday and Saturday half-holidays for the children in the lower classes in the Primary Schools. These classes are conducted by one of the teachers in the Kindergartens.

#### *Kinderbewahranstalten.*

In Dresden there are six *Bewahranstalten*, and four *Krippen* (Crèches). Like the Kindergartens they are not financed by the city, and are supported and controlled by a private charitable organisation.

The one visited is housed in a large two-storied building in a shady pleasant garden, and is situated in the midst of a populous working-class district. The children, aged from three to six years, were in the rooms on the lower floor. These rooms include a kitchen, a small room with pegs for the children's hats, and cupboards containing toys, a large living room bare of decoration and of furniture except low tables and seats, and a resting room with large mattresses on the floor on which the younger children sleep after the midday meal. This room is too small for its purpose. Everything was scrupulously clean. There were about fifty-five children present. They come at six or seven in the morning, and remain till seven in the evening. The mothers are employed in the factories, in laundries, and as charwomen. The staff consists of a "nurse," who has not been trained for her work, a young girl in her teens to help her, and a servant who keeps the rooms clean and washes the pinafores which are worn by the children during the day. The "nurse" does a large part of the cooking. The midday meal consists of meat and vegetables twice a week, and rice or other milk food with vegetables on the other days. Ten pfennigs per day are paid for each child.

In the afternoon on which the visit was paid, the children had had their rest, and were singing as they sat round the tables in the living room. At four o'clock coffee was brought in a large pail, and ladled out in tin cups. A slice of bread was given to those children who had not brought their own. After the meal the children played in the garden. The nurse plays some of the Kindergarten games with the children, but with the exception of a little embroidery done by the older children there is no Froebelian handwork or other organised activity.

Upstairs the rooms consist of a large living room with low tables and baby chairs, a sleeping room with cots, and a room where the children are bathed every morning and dressed in garments belonging to the Crèche. There is also a broad, shady verandah which forms a playroom. There were between thirty and forty children from three months to three years under the charge of the nurse and a girl in her teens.

In Eisenach there are three *Bewahranstalten*. One of them is new and the methods employed are quite in accordance with modern ideas. It is situated in a new and rapidly developing industrial quarter of the town,



and is supported by a Protestant Sisterhood. The Sister-in-charge was trained for the work in the Deaconess' Institute in Dresden. The staff is quite adequate to the needs of the children. The children under two have their own rooms and attendants. The others are divided into sections and have rooms for work and play. There is plenty of space; the rooms are light and airy, the furniture is easily moved, and round the walls are brightly coloured friezes of animals in procession. There seemed to be a sufficiency of toys, rocking horses, &c. About two and a-half hours in the day are devoted to organised activities—the Froebelian gifts and occupations, directed games, singing, story-telling, easy gymnastics. The children come at six or seven in the morning and stay till the same time in the evening. The midday meal consists chiefly of milk food and vegetables; at four o'clock in the afternoon coffee and bread are served, and at ten in the morning the children eat the bread they have brought.

In the Crèche, besides the separate cots, large baths, and hygienic feeding bottles, there were scales for weighing the babies. This is done every three days.

Besides the staff of Sisters there are several young girls who are to be trained for the care and education of young children. It is hoped that in future this part of the work will be further developed.

S. YOUNG.

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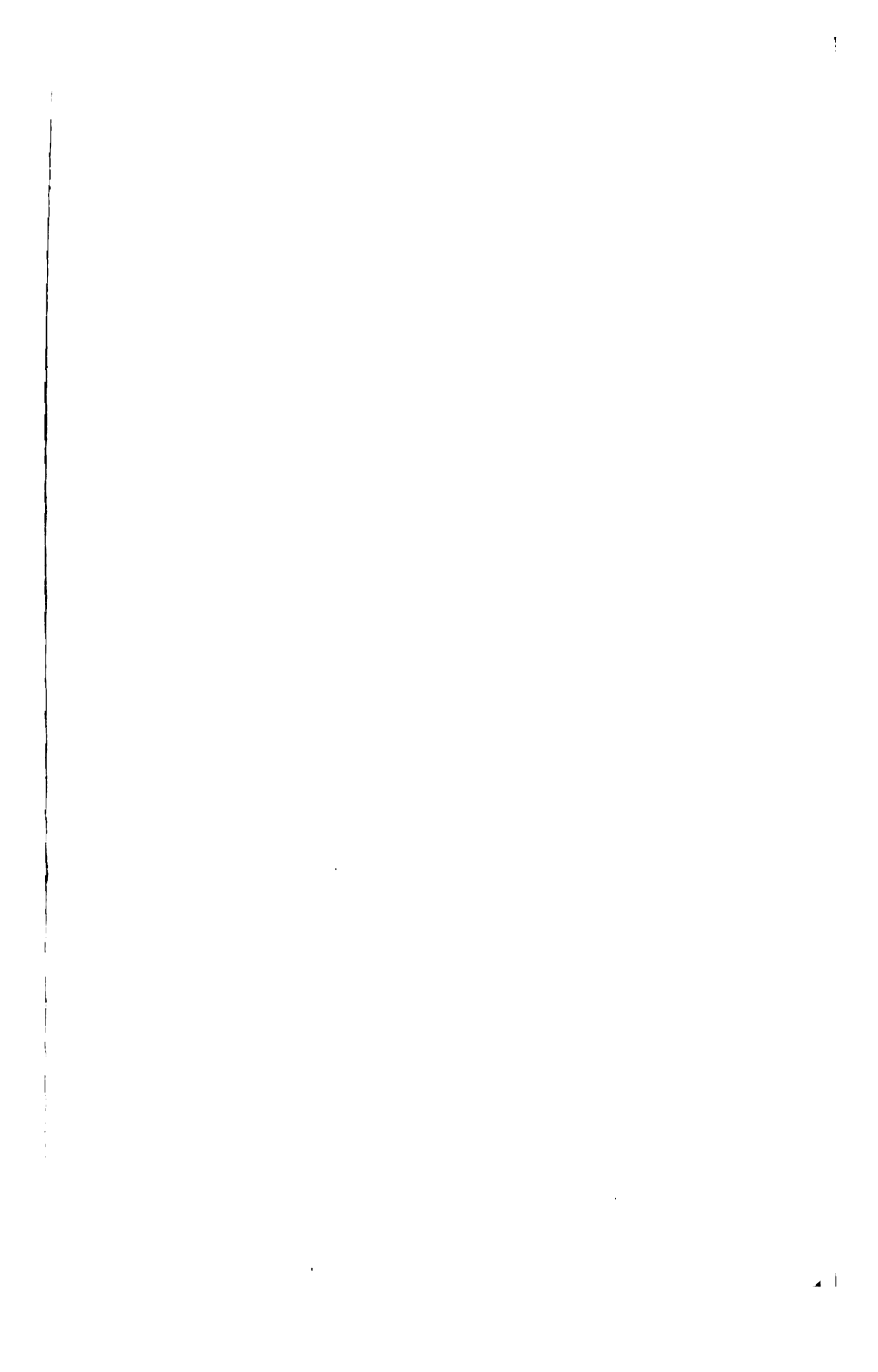
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